The Nation.

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The Week.

Secretary Taft lived up to his newly acquired title of Secretary of Peace in his address at the banquet in Tokio on Monday. Nothing could have been franker or more truthful than his emphatic assertion that war between Japan and the United States would be a "crime against civilization," and that neither nation desired it. In his treatment of the relations of the two countries, there was no palavering and no dealing in glittering generalities; nothing but an emphatic denunciation of the "infamous suggestion" of war between the two countries, which have not a single real cause for hostility. For this timely speech Secretary Taft deserves high praise, as does his chief, President Roosevelt, with whose authority Mr. Taft must have spoken. This is the kind of American statesmanship of which all Americans can and should be proud; and it must go far towards stopping the malicious talk about impending hostilities between the two nations. Go far towards stopping talk of war, we say. But so long as the dispatch of our entire battleship fleet to the Pacific is insisted upon, the danger of friction with Japan remains. Mr. Taft may make a dozen such admirable addresses; they could not hide the fact that the proposed cruise of the fleet is everywhere taken as a threat against Japan. So it is considered throughout Europe. The German press has declared it to be an anti-Japanese act; a naval writer in the *Contemporary* speaks of it as explicable only because the Administration regards itself in danger on the Asiatic side. By the yellow journals of this country, and some that have hitherto been counted as conservative, it has similarly been accepted as a reply to Japan's "hectoring diplomacy." No well-informed person anywhere believes that the cruise is in the interest of the navy's efficiency. Even from the Imperialistic and Jingo point of view, the cruise is folly, for the fleet is nearly as unprepared as the Russian, and as little drilled in battle tactics. The cruise may impress the unthinking part of the American public; prove effective with the next Republican Convention; help Secretary Metcalf to get into the Senate from California; induce Congress to vote more battleships and build more navy yards on the Pacific; but scare the Japanese it will not. They know as well as our own officers the defects of our fleet—that it has practically no torpedoes, or torpedo-tubes, or reserve ammunition, or, on many ships, proper range-finders. In short, so long as this mischievous cruise is adhered to without any public announcement as to its real reason, the statesmanship of Mr. Taft remains sadly embarrassed.

President Roosevelt's offer to pay Americans 50 per cent. more than foreigners for coal for the Pacific cruise is described as "generous," but is it? It seems to us a case where the Administration should be just before it is generous. Some of the tariff duties are 200 per cent. How, then, can our struggling coal-transports expect to do anything but founder with only 50 per cent.? Besides, as the spokesmen for our shipping interests (and their own pockets) eloquently pointed out to the President, the terror of our fleet to foreign nations will be much impaired if they see us carrying coal for the battleships in anything but American bottoms. Whereas, if the foreigners merely see the Government held up by its own citizens, and compelled to pay two prices, they will be filled with dread and, very likely, amazement. However this may be, we hope that a Republican President is not going to admit that any price can be too high for Americans to pay, provided they pay it to Americans, in American money, for American goods, and in order to make Americans appear like fools.

In advising his party to press the issue of States' rights in its new form, Mr. Bryan is unquestionably supported by a much stronger sentiment among other leaders than he could command for any of the various policies he has recently put forward. The Democrat who reads that Bryan, Parker, John A. Johnson, Tom L. Johnson, Hearst, and Folk are substantially agreed on a certain line of policy, experiences a sensation as agreeable as it is novel. The Nebraska Democratic platform, which Mr. Bryan himself is supposed to have drafted, expresses the issue felicitously:

> While we favor the exercise by the general government of all its constitutional authority for the prevention of monopoly and for the regulation of interstate commerce, we insist that Federal remedies shall be added to, and not substituted for, State remedies.

Neither parties nor individuals have taken sides on this question consistently, yet the relations of State and Federal functions have really been fundamental to most of the political activity of the present Presidential term. That it will be the issue of chief popular interest in the canvass of next year we are not prepared to say, but if it is, there is already a large amount of material on hand for its discussion.

It is impossible to take seriously the assertion that the Independence League is to stay in politics as a third party without nominating Mr. Hearst for the Presidency. In the name of all that is radical, whom else can it nominate? The other men who sit in its councils are unknown to the country, or owe such fame as they have in chief part to their association with Hearst. The League's founder has been explicit and apparently earnest in his denial of any intention again to seek office. But the question of his nomination is logically settled in the decision for a "third party" policy. The wisdom of that decision is another matter. It is customary to speak of an independent association like this as a "third" party, though, as a mere matter of mathematics, there are at least six other parties ahead of it in the field. One election in our history, that of Polk, is generally thought to have been determined by a seceding element which held the balance of power, and by putting up a ticket of its own defeated the candidate of the party to which most of its members formerly belonged. But it may be doubted if Mr. Hearst can possibly make as much trouble outside the Democratic party as he has inside.

Another clash between State and Federal courts seems threatened, this time in Minnesota. A county judge has issued a writ of mandamus to compel the Northern Pacific to obey a law which a Federal judge had declared to be null and void. The matter will, we presume, be amicably adjusted before October 5, when the writ is returnable, just as the two jurisdictions were recently kept from conflict in North Carolina and Alabama. But the incident will give fresh point to the revived discussion of the proper limits of the power of the national Government applied within the territory of the States. In a recent issue of the New York *Independent*, Judge Walter Clark of the North Carolina Supreme Court writes (or rails) about the whole system of appointive judges. He goes so far as to argue that there is no warrant in the Constitution for the Supreme Court of the United States to hold an act of Congress void because unconstitutional. The practice of pronouncing upon the validity of laws enacted by Congress, Judge Clark regards as pure usurpation. He admits, however, that this "illegal grasping" of power has been "too long acquiesced in to be questioned." This makes his argument seem rather academic for a man who is so stout an advocate of doing practical things for the people's welfare that Mr. Bryan has named him as fit for the Presidency.

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The really vital and sober political issue in Massachusetts this year is the tariff. Henry M. Whitney is making it the burden of all his speeches. He argues forcibly in behalf of the hampered merchants of Massachusetts, not forgetting the consumers. Following up the line of reasoning on which Gov. Douglas was elected, and on the strength of which Mr. Whitney himself received so large a vote for Lieutenant-Governor in 1905, he is waging war upon the selfish and stolid protectionists, and demanding lower duties, with reciprocity, as the economic necessity of Massachusetts. The universal expectation is that on that issue he will get the vote of thousands of Republicans. If so, he can be defeated only by Democratic disaffection. Gov. Guild's famous letter to President Roosevelt declared that the Republicans could not have carried the State unless they had promised immediate tariff revision. Unable to make even that delusive promise this year, they cannot be entering the contest without apprehension.

The more the refusal of Sir Thomas Lipton's challenge is studied, the less satisfactory appears the action of the New York Yacht Club. In the first place, Sir Thomas challenged, not with a 68-footer, but with a 68-rater, which would have meant a water-line length of about 75 feet, or only 15 feet less than a 90-footer. But if one turns back to the Thistle and Genesta and the Vigilant, it appears that the proposed racer would only be from eight to ten feet shorter than these famous boats. Yet no one would think of contending that these racers were too small to preserve the "dignity" of the America's Cup. Since the New York Yacht Club maintains that 75 feet is beneath that dignity, it would be interesting to know just where it begins to be offended. Is it at 79, or 80, or 81 feet? Meanwhile, Mr. Fife is absolutely justified in refusing to design a racer for Sir Thomas under the old rules. Why should he? They were always vicious, and we ourselves have gladly discarded them for a more sensible set. Now the question is whether the New York Yacht Club will insist that Sir Thomas shall build under rules that we have abandoned as detrimental to the sport. If the club maintains this attitude, it assumes an indefensible position which will expose it to severe and justified criticism. We prefer to believe that it will revise its action. If it does not, people will assume that it does not want any race—for no Englishman will build hereafter under the old rules—or else that, for reasons personal to himself, it is trying to crowd Sir Thomas out.

The death on September 24 of Miss Anna T. Jeanes of Philadelphia, before the trustees of her million-dollar fund for the benefit of negro schools in the rural South have been able to organize their great work, removes another of the many modest public benefactors with which this country is richly blessed. Certainly, one can never guess from what quiet home, or what out-of-the way corner will come some notable philanthropic undertaking. True, in the tremendous field it must cover, Miss Jeanes's gift is merely a drop in the bucket; yet if wisely administered, as it is certain to be, it may induce other contributions and stimulate, we hope, recreant communities to realize that ignorance is a cure for nothing, but a positive detriment to the region where it exists—whether that be a farm district of Alabama or the most densely populated block in New York.

Last year Swarthmore College defeated the University of Pennsylvania 4 to 0 in football. To-day the college is in a position to add the estimated sum of $1,000,000 to its endowment if it will abandon "all participation in intercollegiate sports and games." In these two sentences we have a problem presented, compared with which the conflicts of every dramatist from Æschylus down to Clyde Fitch pale into insignificance. Honor versus glory, love against duty, filial affection against country and flag—what are they as compared with the open choice of becoming a college of the first class or beating Pennsylvania? We do not envy the Swarthmore trustees the task of coming to a decision, so complex are the factors involved, and so lacking in precedent the situation. To accept the donation would be to sell Swarthmore's birthright for a generous mess of pottage. If games were wrong before, why were they continued in a Quaker institution? If they are right, would not any board of trustees that dared to abolish them be fit subjects for their own contempt as well as public execration? It is bad enough to omit courses in sociology or economics that might be obnoxious to a generous benefactor, but omit football!

That there should be Cubans enough of any class with sufficient temerity to make an uprising against the present provisional government is astounding. The last insurrection had for its object the overthrow of the Palma Government through American intervention. The intrigues and agitations that have followed the establishment of the provisional government have also started out with the presupposition that where the favor of the United States went, there would go power and offices. That armed filibustering will pay is possibly the hope which agitates certain Cuban breasts, but it is, of course, a baseless hope. We must take into account, however, the ardent southern temperament, which does not reason by the ordinary rules of logic, mathematics, or prudence. The minute topographical map of the island prepared by the War Department, we were told, has made Cuban guerrilla warfare impossible. But the trouble here is the same what occurred in the case of the man who preferred to climb a tree when assailed by a bulldog, though he was convinced that the human eye can subdue the fiercest raging beast. "You know the fact and I know the fact," he explained to a friend, "but the dog, he doesn't know it."

Sharp action by the British government has made impossible any further bickerings over the Newfoundland fisheries, till the question is finally disposed of by the Hague Tribunal. Once arbitration had been agreed upon, it seemed mere gratuitous borrowing of trouble for Premier Bond to rail against the terms of the temporary *modus vivendi*, and to threaten the enforcement of the colony's anti-American laws in spite of it. This is the view taken by a majority of the colonists themselves who have protested in mass meeting against the Premier's contemplated action; by the body of press opinion in Great Britain; and, of course, by the British government itself, which, in compliance with obligations assumed when it agreed to refer the case for arbitration, has now issued an order suspending the Newfoundland laws directed against American fishing vessels and prohibiting the initiation of legal prosecutions under such laws. Premier Bond, desiring to avoid a conflict with the Imperial authorities in which he could come off only second best, has announced his intention to suspend the enforcement of restrictive legislation until the question has been adjudicated at The Hague. The British government has been compelled so frequently of late to see the interests of the Empire as a whole antagonized by the refractory conduct of its subjects in Australia, South Africa, and, only the other day, in British Columbia, that it has probably relished the opportunity to vindicate its authority against Newfoundland.

Publication in England of the new Australian tariff has produced a most disagreeable impression. True, there was the promised "preference" for British goods, but first the duties had been marked up to such a height that, even with abatement in favor of British imports, the rates remained highly protective and, in some cases, prohibitory. But this discovery, unpleasant as it is to the Colonial preference champions, is only what might have been expected. Lord George Hamilton, one of the Conserva-

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tive leaders who refused to bow the knee to Chamberlain, has a trenchant letter in the London *Times* in which he sets forth the exact truth. As he says, "the spirit of unbending protection" is absolutely inconsistent with any movement for the freer exchange of products between nations. Australia is at present dominated by the protectionist idea, and so long as she remains so, she will give no real "preference" except upon articles which cannot, even in part, be supplied at home. "If the imposed duty, minus the preference, is insufficient to prevent the successful competition of British goods with native productions, it is raised until it has effected that purpose." Lord George asks with much pertinence what would have been thought of the British government if it had assented to food taxes in order to get Australian preference of this barren variety.

The questions raised by the Anglo-Russian agreement with regard to Western and Central Asia are numerous. At one stroke we have the solution of three problems, each of which has been important enough to threaten war. Afghanistan, Persia, and Tibet will no longer exercise a preponderant influence in determining the relations between Russia and Great Britain, not only in Asia, but in Europe as well. On the face of things, Great Britain has obtained the better of the bargain. In Afghanistan she has secured confirmation of her asserted rights, through formal recognition by Russia of the British government as the sole intermediary of the Ameer in political negotiations. Great Britain is to refrain from interfering in the internal administration, but her present influence, based partly on an annual subsidy to the Ameer, is sufficient for her purpose—the defence of India. In Tibet both Powers agree to keep their hands off; no representatives are to be sent to Lhassa, and Chinese suzerainty is recognized. But here, too, Great Britain holds the advantage she secured as a result of the Younghusband campaign in Tibet a few years ago; for it is provided that direct relations between British commercial agents and Tibetan authorities shall be permitted on the basis of conventions concluded in 1904 and 1906. In other words, the British government retains rights in Tibet which it refuses Russia in Afghanistan. It is when we turn to the provisions regarding Persia that we touch the most interesting, if not, perhaps, the most vital, feature of the agreement. It is the fashion to speak of reform and parliamentarism as the only means that can save China from disappearance or partition; yet Persia's Parliament and manful attempts at reform have not saved her from partition, for that practically is what the Anglo-Russian convention contemplates. The long-discussed delimitation of interests has become a fact. To Russia has been assigned a sphere of influence in the north comprising more than one-third of the entire empire. Within this region, in which lies the capital Teheran, with Tabriz, Ispahan, and other important towns, Great Britain resigns the pursuit of commercial and political concessions, and agrees not to oppose Russian activity in a similar direction. Reciprocal obligations are assumed by Russia in respect to a smaller but still vast quadrilateral in the southeast. An extensive middle zone, including the ancient ruins of Persepolis, is left unprovided for. In the case of failure on the part of the government to pay interest on its foreign loans, the two Powers may assume control of the sources of revenue in their respective spheres.

The adoption by the Spanish government of a strong anti-emigration policy is in line with the current discussion of measures for restricting emigration in Italy and Hungary. The lack of agricultural labor has become a problem of pressing importance for the land-owners, to a point where there has even been talk of importing Chinese coolies. The drift to the towns so marked at present in Italy, which is passing through a period of feverish industrialism, is almost as serious a drain on the rural districts as actual emigration. Spain has been sending colonists to South America and the French possessions in North Africa, and the emigration has often been *en masse*. The immediate drain against which the Spanish government wishes to contend is the recruiting of labor for the Panama Canal; and the means it intends to employ are a rigorous enforcement of the laws of military service and the enactment of severe shipping regulations. It is difficult to believe, however, that measures savoring of the mediæval Statute of Laborers can prove efficacious nowadays. At the present moment parts of Spain are suffering from disastrous floods, which are reported to have rendered many thousands homeless. Such a calamity supplies an impulse to emigration that restrictive laws can scarcely check.

Concerning the French separation question, a Catholic writer in a recently published volume on the subject advanced the ingenious statement that Mohammedanism is at present the official religion of France. His argument was that, with the disestablishment of all other creeds, Islam, which in Algeria enjoys state protection, became *ipso facto* the only recognized faith. The defect in the argument is that, as a matter of fact, the Separation Law of December 9, 1905, was not made effective in Algeria until a few days ago, when an administrative decree set the date for the separation of the churches from the state at January 1, 1908. As in France, the chief Christian denomination affected is the Catholic Church, which has in Algeria an archbishop and two bishops, with nearly 400 priests. There is no reason to suppose that the attitude of the Catholic Church in Africa will be different from what it is in the mother country. But chief interest attaches to the Mohammedans, who are now deprived of the support guaranteed them by the French Government after the conquest, when the mosques, with their attached properties, were sequestrated. Moslems, like others, must now organize into *associations cultuelles*, in order to receive legal possession of their ecclesiastical establishments. Inasmuch as the French government has always used the Mohammedan religious institutions as one of its most efficient instruments for controlling the native population, the emancipation of the Mohammedan clergy from government control, if real, will be an important factor in the future relations between Europeans and the followers of Islam in North Africa.

In connection with the thickening shadows of approaching constitutionalism in China, it is of interest to note the results of the studies undertaken by the Imperial Commission under the presidency of Viceroy Tuan Fang, which in 1905-06 made a journey of investigation around the world. The report of the commission has been published under the title, "Epitome of Politics," and deals, in 133 chapters, with the subjects of constitutional government, official organization, local government, education, naval organization, commerce, industries, finance, justice, and religion. The work is for the greater part a translation of important political documents. The Constitutions treated are those of Italy, Prussia, the United States, and Austria, with briefer reference to France, Belgium, and Great Britain. It is remarkable that in the matter of organic principles of government, as well as in administration and local government, Italy is accepted as the model to which all other nations only approach. Full treatment is given to our own State governments, of which those of New York and Massachusetts are taken as types. Under the head of Law, Italy again takes the most prominent place with a translation of part of the civil code. Of American law a summary is given. Instead of being a body of conclusions and of direct counsel towards political action, the report is, therefore, mainly a collection of original sources which, in the meagre state of China's knowledge of modern government, is expected to prove of value.

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TEMPERATURE OF STATESMEN.

Several influential Western newspapers, in discussing the extraordinary way in which the Governor of New York is coming to be talked of for the Presidency, have dwelt upon the fact that Mr. Hughes is a "cold" man. Says the Portland *Oregonian:*

> There was a time, which we can all remember, when the epithet of "icy," justly earned, sealed a statesman's doom, no matter what qualities of the intellect he might possess, no matter how unbending his integrity.

Yet the remarkable fact is that Gov. Hughes, though "all that we used to think a politician must not be," has surpassed all recent politicians in the strides he has made towards the highest office in so brief a time. Similarly, the Indianapolis *News* remarks that Mr. Hughes is "not impulsive or magnetic," and is said to have "no popular qualities"; yet that he is, "almost against his will, one of the leading candidates for the Republican nomination for the Presidency."

This warming up of the West to an icy man shows that, possibly, the temperature of a statesman is not so important as some political oracles would have us believe. So much depends upon the conditions to which the ice is to be applied. For example, the old jokes about the awful chill which surrounded the Adams family were supposed to be not only highly amusing, but indicative of the popular dislike of such austere severity in a public man. Yet when the Adams ice was so effectively used to lower British heat—when Charles Francis Adams, as American Minister to England, turned his cold douche upon Lord Palmerston, or wrote icily to Lord John Russell: "It is superfluous for me to point out to your Lordship that this means war"—there was no lack of popular appreciation of the service. In times of fevered politics it may be that even an impatient democracy would not be averse to warding off inflammation of the brain with a cooling and grateful ice-bag.

Indeed, a large reading of our political annals would reveal the truth that the cold men have a way of going further than your gentlemen all aglow. Washington did not slap his Secretaries on the back, or call any of them "old man." As for familiarities with the Father of his Country, a contemporary would as soon have thought of attempting them with Mont Blanc. Even the great democrat, Jefferson, was not an effusive man. The story-telling Lincoln knew how to preserve, in public, the dignity of his office. Grover Cleveland was as cold-blooded as the fish he loved to catch, yet somehow he was twice elected President. On the other hand, the famous gushers among politicians, the men all heart, and that heart worn on the sleeve, have generally failed of their ambitions. There was no suggestion of ice about Henry Clay—except as it may have been an ingredient in a favorite drink of his. He was regarded with more personal affection than any public man of his time; but he could not reach the Presidency. What happened to the magnetic Blaine—"the greatest combination of heart and brain ever seen on this continent"—was surely not of a sort to encourage the high-temperature school of statesmanship.

The perfervid men have their uses. They can stir an agitation; they can arouse enthusiasm. But even their own following has doubts, when it comes to putting a man of warm impulses into a great executive office where cool judgment is requisite. Stephen A. Douglas was a man capable of generating a terrific amount of heat. Living men who have heard him speak, tell in an awed sort of way of the impression of almost appalling energy which he made. Yet there was ever in his case the little less and what worlds away. The heat was without a harness for useful public ends. People will listen to such burning orators gladly. A North Carolina mountaineer was heard to say of Gov. Glenn: "I like to hear that man make a speech. He do sweat so powerful." But fervent heat is, after all, not the first quality which the voters think of when, in time of peril or of perplexity, they look for a man to lead them. Ability and conscience, steadiness and a strong sense of justice, will then take precedence; and concerning the man who displays them, citizens will not too curiously inquire whether his temperature is above or below normal.

Falling in a period of sensationalized politics, this marked turning of people throughout the country to a man like Hughes seems to us of the happiest cmen. It argues that the people are on the watch for the sterling virtues, and know how to appreciate them; and that when they find a man possessing them, it makes little difference how he looks or dresses or speaks or bears himself. "Coldness," if it be of the right kind, Americans will not only tolerate but will admire. Cold truth can yet hold its own against hot air. Of course, mere frigidity is no recommendation. An icicle adrip is loved by no one. Fairbanks is a cold man, but consider the difference between him and Hughes! It is only when the cool exterior and the austere manner go with the reason high and resolute will, that the people begin to think how comfortable it would be to pass from a tropic Executive to one of the temperate zone.

THE NEW ATTACK ON JUDGES.

That Hearst, with the incongruous aid of the Attorney-General of New York, should have taken up the cry against the judiciary, shows that he believes this course popular. Otherwise, he would not think of it. He and Attorney-General Jackson ring the changes on judges named and controlled by corporations, who upset laws intended to relieve the poor and to help organized labor. In this way Messrs. Hearst and Jackson apparently imagine that they can put themselves at the head of a large following. It is a matter for sober inquiry whether they are mistaken, or whether there is real ground for distrust of the judiciary, and what are the proper limits of criticism of judges.

With the pretence that judges are above all fault-finding, we have scant sympathy. They are public servants; and, like all others, ought to be carefully watched to see if they do their work well or ill. They are erring mortals, with their full share of human nature. There will be an occasional unjust or corrupt judge, precisely as there will be cheating lawyers, embezzling bankers, malpractitioners among physicians, and blackmailers among editors. We have had to impeach judges, now and then, in both State and nation. How could we have stripped the judicial robes from Barnard and Cardozo if the doctrine of the absolute inviolability of judges had been accepted? We are certainly not prepared to say that the judge can do no wrong.

Nor can we be blind to the fact that judges, like other public officials, are sometimes subject to undue influence. Shrewd men have always known this. John Selden remarked in his "Table Talk": "We see the pageants in Cheapside, the lions and the elephants, but we do not see the men that carry them. We see the judges look big, look like lions, but we do not see who moves them." Some judges are not above the suspicion of being swayed by personal or political motives. Political bosses have their creatures on the bench. Tweed had his; Boss Cox of Ohio had his; Murphy would have his if he could; it has been charged that the Metropolitan Street Railway had its; Hearst's nominations last year showed that he wanted his. With all these facts before us, it would be absurd to say that no criticism of a judge's character or motives should ever escape us. A democracy can have no sacrosanct officers.

Furthermore, we know that judges are not exempt from the dread of what their fellow-citizens dread—often in unmanly ways. They dislike to be unpopular; they are afraid of the yellow press; they shrink from conflict with executive power. By this last influence, to quote Selden again, "we know what judges can be made to do." He may have had in mind King Charles's ship-money, the legality of which was upheld by the courts, under scandalous pressure from without. Clarendon wrote of the "de-

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served reproach and infamy that attended the judges" in consequence, and traced the later disregard of law to "the irreverence and scorn the judges were justly in."

Against the recurrence of such a state of things it behooves us all to be vigilantly on our guard. Thus much we are forced to concede. But the Hearst outcry against the judiciary goes far beyond this. He ventures to assail judges who decide cases differently from the way in which he thinks they ought to be decided. And he is bitter against the practice of the courts in setting aside statutes. Judges ought, he says, to "interpret" the laws, never to "repeal" them. Thus he would remove the last safeguard against hasty or confiscatory legislation. Any popular "craze" might write itself into the statute-book without fear of being judicially erased. There would even be an end of that common way of voting for bad bills in Congress, on the plea that no harm could be done, since the Supreme Court would be certain to disallow such unconstitutional legislation!

A timely and pat comment on the railing of Messrs. Hearst and Jackson is made by the New York State Labor Commissioner, P. Tecumseh Sherman. He speaks of the number of labor laws held invalid by the courts, and notes that they have "in certain quarters" aroused "antagonism" to the judges. This is wholly unfair, he argues, for most of the legislation thus set aside was carelessly and ignorantly drawn. It was framed in "heedless disregard for Constitutional principles." The men really to condemn are, not the judges, but the unskilled and negligent framers of the statutes. Mr. Sherman avows his belief that the Constitution does not stand in the way of the "legitimate objects" sought by the statutes that have been declared void, and that it was only because the laws in question were at once crude and too sweeping that they necessarily fell under judicial condemnation.

The real point and danger of such attacks as Hearst's upon the judiciary lie in the desire to get rid of the restraints which judges have power to impose upon a temporary mania in a democracy. It is not with Hearst a question of personnel. He is perfectly ready to nominate unfit judges. One of his nominees for the Court of Appeals is really disqualified on the ground of age. Nor is it, with impatient agitators, a question of electing rather than appointing judges, for short terms rather than long. What is wanted is the immediate right to lay a despoiling hand upon property, by means of legislation whooped through; or permission to interfere with personal rights and liberties which antedate our laws and Constitution, and which the courts are set to safeguard and enforce. No mischief is done to the commonwealth without the consent of a judge, is the old saying; and this latest attack upon judges is made for the purpose of rendering mischievous legislation easier. Understanding exactly what is intended, we ought to be able the more readily to meet and repel the assault.

TRACKING CAPITAL TO ITS LAIR.

These are troublous days for the owners of property represented by negotiable securities. In the United States, such properties are being subjected to new restrictions and limitations. In Europe, the pursuit of owners of securities is more distinctly a question of national revenue. Foreign governments care less than President Roosevelt how much money corporations make, but they feel bound to get their share of it. France has perhaps suffered more than any other country in recent years from the transfer of her corporate wealth to other jurisdictions. This is because her own taxes—imposed directly not only upon ownership, but also upon every transfer or issue—have been larger and more exacting than those of nations which have been less hard pressed to raise revenue.

So notorious has become the exportation of French wealth to Belgium and Switzerland that M. Caillaux, the present Minister of Finance, seriously proposed at the recent sitting of the Chamber to require the foreign branches of French banks, as well as foreign banks having branches in France, to report to the government the names of French depositors, including those depositing securities, with the amounts of such holdings. The project failed with the adjournment of the Chamber, but is likely to be renewed at the next sitting. M. Caillaux even went so far as to declare that deposits of French securities abroad were essentially fraudulent, and that he was already in negotiation with other governments to inaugurate a crusade to check efforts to escape taxation on securities. As one of the French journals describes the situation, it is proposed to create extradition treaties for capital like those for other criminals. It appears that a convention already exists between the governments of France and Belgium for the exchange of certain statistical information, and this M. Caillaux hopes to turn to his uses.

The project of extraditing criminal capital, however, seems likely to involve nearly as many difficulties as the effort in this country to place the strong hand of the law upon "tainted money." It does not appear that either Switzerland or Belgium has responded with enthusiasm to the suggestions of the French Minister. Both countries have profited greatly by the freedom which has prevailed on their stock exchanges and in their banking methods. Hundreds of millions of French capital are admitted to be on deposit, chiefly in the form of securities, in Swiss and Belgian banks, and large transactions are carried on by Frenchmen in the markets of Geneva and Brussels. The financial system of these countries profits by these transactions, and their governments are naturally loath to take any step to impair this benefit. Already the Swiss government has intimated in a courteous manner that, whatever the Federal Council might be willing to do, there will be difficulty in securing the consent of the twenty-five cantons to the inquisitorial statistics desired by the government of France.

The difficulty in most of these official efforts to check the movement of capital is that capital is more nimble than the government. Hunted from one lair, it seeks another. While governments may be adopting new measures or framing treaties to extradite or expel capital which has taken refuge in Belgium or Switzerland, the crafty capitalist has only to shift his holdings to some other country. The Bourse of Vienna would probably welcome transactions which might be checked in other countries, and the growing Stock Exchange of Genoa affords a convenient asylum for French capital crossing the frontier. The French nation had comparatively little difficulty in sequestrating the real estate of the religious orders when it began its crusade against the Church some years ago, but was less successful in confiscating property in other forms. Millions of dollars of securities held by the orders and the churches were thrown upon the market. The decline in the quotations for *rentes* was attributed at the time to the sales by the Church, but was probably due quite as much to the growing demand for capital. Much money formerly invested in French securities, however, went into Italian bonds, and other sums into other enterprises.

If it seems surprising that the government of a country so enlightened as that of France should take measures which tend to fetter the free movement of capital, it should be remembered that the Ministry has been for some years under the control of Radical and almost Socialistic elements. The normal hostility to capital is heightened by the fact that much of it belongs in France to those who are not cordial supporters of the republic. It will be interesting to observe whether the French government, if it continues in the hands of the Radicals, will succeed in collaring and leading back to France guilty and fleeing capital, or whether, as in so many other governmental efforts to interfere with commerce, there will be only another case of the locking of the stable door after the horse is stolen.

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THE NEW SCIENCE OF EUGENICS.

"The Scope and Importance to the State of the Science of National Eugenics" is the title of the fourteenth Robert Boyle Lecture, delivered at Oxford last May by Prof. Karl Pearson, and just published by Henry Frowde. To Oxford, proud of its philosophers, Professor Pearson puts the question bluntly, "Has philosophy, as such, taught us a single law by aid of which we can understand how a nation becomes physically or mentally more vigorous?" Anticipating the answer that this is not the particular function of philosophy, he goes on, "What weight have philosophy, anthropology, or political economy at present in the field of statesmanship?" These studies, he answers, "do not, alone or combined, form a technical education in statecraft." Premising that "permanence and dominance in the world passes to or from nations, even with their rise and fall in mental and bodily fitness," and that here lies the real explanation of defeated armies and lost provinces, he maintains that "the primary purpose of statecraft is to insure that the nation as a whole shall possess sanity"; that is, shall be "sound in body and sound in mind." Thus, according to Professor Pearson's view, the training for statecraft must be the science of eugenics, which he defines as "the study of agencies under social control that may improve or impair the racial qualities of future generations, either physically or mentally."

The range of investigation is a wide one, including as it does problems of inheritance, of environment, and of nurture, of disease and health, vigor and impotence, intelligence and stupidity, sanity and insanity, conscientiousness and irresponsibility, clean living and license, of sanitation, housing, and schooling. Eugenics seems, in fine, to be a combination of sociology and medicine—or to be a branch of biology, using the term in its broadest signification. Professor Pearson claims for it a place as a true science, to be treated with the "observational caution and critical spirit" of other sciences. He asserts that it has already gone through two stages of development and reached a third. The first is the *ideological*, in which men form ideas about phenomena "on the basis of very limited experience," and spend their time and energy in discussing these ideas, without much reference to the phenomena themselves." The second stage is the *observational*—a period devoted to "observing phenomena critically, and recording and describing their sequences." The third stage is the *metrical*, in which "we proceed from observation to measurement, to accurate numerical expression of the sequences involved."

This last stage is the one on which Professor Pearson lays the strongest emphasis. He explains in some detail the work done by him and his colleagues in the Francis Galton Laboratory for National Eugenics in the University of London. There have been collected already between three and four hundred pedigrees of tuberculous stock; four hundred family histories of insanity; four hundred descriptions of parentage and home environment of mentally defective children, with as many more of normal children, the records of nearly four hundred noteworthy families and three hundred normal families, with psychical and physical descriptions and entries as to ailments and causes of death. These, he says, are but the beginnings of collections which "will one day represent large samples of the physique, the mentality, the fertility, and the disease of wide classes of the nation." These data are being ground through the mill of the mathematician in order to give us exact knowledge as to points regarding which medicine or economics or sociology has hitherto furnished only broad and often loose generalization. We need not dwell on the details—the coefficients for inheritance of eye color or of vivacity and conscientiousness; the size of families of deaf-mutes and professional men; and the death-rate from phthisis among lunatic paupers. Enough to say that if figures do not lie, these tables, averages, percentages, and coefficients—the results of what Professor Pearson calls *biometry*—contain a body of truth apparently precise enough to satisfy an astronomer.

The new science is, of course, on probation. It now boasts but one laboratory; but Professor Pearson confidently predicts that within twenty years the eugenics laboratory will be a recognized part of the equipment of every university. He may be right; to deny such a sweeping statement would be almost as rash as to make it. We may be fairly sure, however, that the science will not be accepted into the hierarchy until its field is more sharply defined, its methods perfected, and its pretensions substantiated. At present, it is, like sociology, suspect; and, for the same reasons: its boundaries are too hazy; it seems to take, as we have already noted, an easy, eclectic course through the realms of economics, anthropology, medicine, general biology, and *omne scibile*. The handicap under which such a science labors is that it attracts as votaries men who are prone to slipshod thinking and haphazard generalization. We would not say that sociologists as a class are intolerant of rigorous intellectual processes, and incapable of conforming to them; but this is the weakness of too many of that profession; and it is likely to be the weakness of eugenists—if we may coin the word. For example, one of Professor Pearson's tables gives in exact percentages for boys and girls the resemblances of "siblings" in psychical characters—namely, "vivacity," "assertiveness," "introspection," "popularity," "conscientiousness," "temper," "ability," and "handwriting." Now, these qualities are hard to define, and still harder to detect and measure in the individual with any approach to scientific precision; and the table, we make bold to say, despite the mathematical skill of the computer, is almost worthless.

The findings of this new science, the nurse of statecraft, are to be the basis both for laws and for voluntary action looking toward the improvement of racial stocks. Conceivably, eugenics will furnish important material in regard to housing, sanitation, quarantine, and the management of hospitals and schools. Along these lines we still have much to learn. We also join Professor Pearson in the pious hope that in time young men and women may marry and rear children under a strong sense of their duty to "decrease the fertility of the unfit, and emphasize that of the fit." But we fear there will be no great change from present procedure until the new science has done what hitherto no science has succeeded in doing—until it has both convinced the mind and overcome the heart.

THE LOCK-STEP AGAIN.

UPPER SANDUSKY, O., September 24.—The superintendent of the Sycamore School considered Terry Wickham, ten, so bright that he promoted him from the fifth to the seventh grade. The Board of Education refused to recognize the promotion, and today Dr. W. H. Wickham, the boy's father, brought mandamus proceedings against the board. A similar case is unknown.

The word *similar* is ambiguous. It may refer to the mandamus proceedings, to the action of the board, or to the promotion. There are, we grant, too many places where skipping a grade is unknown. The bright child is forced into the lock-step with the stupid, and there he stays through all the years of his schooling. The attitude of the Board of Education—we cannot certify to the accuracy of the dispatch—is common among old-fashioned educators. It is devotion to the system run mad. Originally, school was made for the child, but the organization tends to become so complete and rigid that pedagogues proceed upon the principle that the child is made for the school. The rules, of course, are crystallized experience; but conditions change, and the crystals formed a generation ago should often be broken. On the other hand, in administering a large system it is clearly dangerous to make exceptions; if one bright boy skips the sixth grade a dozen more boys, some bright and some not, want to skip it also. But we would have the rules so framed that skipping

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grades, or else promotion by subject, is the regular thing and not the exception.

The topic is one which has lately attracted much attention among teachers. Within a year Charles S. Hartwell, chairman of the Committee on School Problems, Brooklyn Teachers' Association, has conducted an elaborate *questionnaire* on promotion. His circulars were sent to all parts of the country; and some of the answers are extremely depressing. For example:

In your school is there much flexibility and variety? Yes, 349; no, 205.

Do you promote your students by subjects or by grades? Subjects, 261; grades, 293.

Do you make a student who has failed in some of the work of the grade take all the work of the grade again? Yes, 206; no, 357.

Do your schools take care of the individual students' needs in any way? Yes, 473; no. 86.

Do you think each student should be advanced as rapidly as his ability will permit, without reference to his fellows? Yes, 473; no. 86.

The theory of our teachers is obviously better than their practice. An overwhelming majority, 530 to 60, believe in promotion as rapidly as ability will permit; but as a matter of fact, more schools promote by grades than by subjects; and 206—as against 357—make a dropped student take all the work of the grade over again. This particular set of answers we commend to the attention of Superintendent J. M. White of Carthage, Mo., who wrote to Mr. Hartwell: "A rule requiring a high school pupil to repeat *all* the subjects of a certain term or year because he failed in one or more is simply monstrous. I have never before heard of such a practice."

Monstrous is, we agree, a fair description of the rule. But in what pedagogical paradise Superintendent White has spent his time we cannot imagine; for the practice to which he objects is, as we have just seen, widely prevalent. The reasons are not far to seek. It is easier to lay out a cast-iron plan by which the whole class is held in a solid block, and like Wordsworth's cloud, "moveth altogether if it move at all." The alternative is half-a-dozen or more programmes, adapted to the cases of individual pupils in small groups, with the resultant conflicts in hours and the trouble and expense of maintaining a larger number of sections. All these irregularities vex a small mind which, instead of mastering a system, is mastered by it. It is doubtless true that absolutely unrestricted promotion would break all class lines and lead to chaos; but there must be, and in many places there is, a practicable mean between that and the rigid lock-step.

This method of freeing the individual from the clog of a grade is now approved by the most progressive educators. They are coming to see that President Eliot was right when he said that "to discriminate between pupils of different capacity, to select the competent for suitable instruction, and to advance each pupil with appropriate rapidity, will ultimately become the most important functions of the public-school administrator—those functions in which he or she will be most serviceable to families and to the state." No one can deny that promotion by grade, more especially in the high school, is terribly wasteful of a pupil's time, energy, and interest. For example, Mr. Hartwell examined the work of 163 boys in the middle of a high-school course, and found that 55 of them had been "left back" seventy-one terms of work. In few of these cases had the deficiency been in more than half the subjects. The needless repetition amounted to fully thirty terms' work, or fifteen years. If evidence of this kind were spread before parents and teachers throughout the country, the 293 schools which, according to Mr. Hartwell's report, promote by grade would be compelled to make a quick change, or else hundreds of fathers would follow Dr. Wickham's lead and resort to the mandamus.

BROWNING'S "OLD YELLOW BOOK."

Come then, all ye youths! And, careless of censure, give yourselves up to *steal* and drive the spoil from every source. . . . Often I love to play on some ancient phrase, and utter some far other thought in the same words. Nor will any wise man care to blame my self-confessing thefts, thefts open and to be praised and approved by our children's children. So far be it from me to wish to hide my stolen goods, and conceal my plunder, from any fear or the penalty of infamy.—Vida (1527), translated by Saintsbury.

This gallant proclamation of the literary road, made half a century before Shakespeare, may be regarded as expressing the working principle of the majority of the great Elizabethans. And Shakespeare's own exemplification of the right of eminent domain in letters is familiar to all students of his plays. Still further, modern European criticism has spent much of its energies in illustrating the theory and practice of literary spoliation. Yet after all, our present-day writers are a timid folk, jealous of their reputation for originality, and making their thefts as cautiously and secretly as the sneak thief. Browning was bolder. His example in the longest and most important of his poems, "The Ring and the Book," is a case in point. Many of his subjects he gathered from books, not the classic, or the well-established myth or tale, but book-stall trash. In the "Old Yellow Book," however, he met the most congenial and effective appeal ever made to him in this way.

He himself has told of the chance finding of this volume. One June day of 1860, he left the Casa Guidi home, as was his wont, to mingle in the busy life of the streets. His prize for the day's walk was a parchment-covered collection of old law records, discovered "mongst odds and ends of rav-age" in the Piazza of San Lorenzo. Nor was it by mere chance, as he felt, but rather by "predestination," that this relic of what had been the sensational tragedy of its period, fell to his hands, possibly the only hands of his century in which it would have proved more than rubbish. This treasure-trove, for which he paid "eightpence English just," was to prove one of the most important stimuli to which Robert Browning was ever subjected.

Yet familar as the mere name of the "Old Yellow Book" is to admirers of Browning, the volume itself is scarcely known to them. Any one may see it as it rests in the showcase in Balliol College library. A few of the poet's surviving friends have seen him handle the volume occasionally. Dr. F. J. Furnivall, in a recent note, says that once Browning "tossed it in the air, and twirled it round by the crumpled vellum covers." Yet not a dozen persons have had opportunity and patience to find what these covers really contain. Now, however, it is on the eve of being exhibited in a photo-reproduction by the Carnegie Institution of Washington. This will not merely show the basis in fact for "The Ring and the Book" itself, but will throw a flood of light on the creative processes, the peculiar masterfulness of Robert Browning. And still further, it will afford a new and extraordinary opportunity for studying the more general problem of the artist's relationship to his raw material.

The original writers of the volume were lawyers with but pedestrian literary skill, under the pressure of haste, and bent solely upon their professional tasks in a thrilling murder case. The sensational, brutal mass of fact was treated merely for presentation in type before a small board of judges. The arguments have not even the sort of popular appeal which the modern presentation of a case before a jury must have to prove effective. This is the crude original of the Franceschini story.

Now the drawing of material at almost first-hand from life is not uncommon with modern writers of fiction. Our important novelists have utilized such plebeian material abundantly. But the student is generally unable to watch the process of making it over; we cannot find just how much or how little the artist had for a basis of his imaginary superstructure. In the "Old Yellow Book," however, we have practically the complete data that fell into the hands of the poet, and we can trace all the changes effected by the play of imagination.

Browning's stylistic powers were practically unaided by the original; the chaos of the book offered him a more unusual problem; for most important source-books show a semblance of orderliness. The crude drama or the ineffective novel before Shakespeare had at least developed an orderly story and plot. The "Old Yellow Book," however, was made piecemeal; a bundle of confusing repetitions, and contradictions. Missing evidence has left wide gaps in our knowledge. The result is a confusion thrice confounded, an irreconcilable warring of the parts, a dismemberment and scattering of the facts. One of the most interesting features of Browning's creative mind is the executive energy, the generalship by which he brought order out of confusion. His imagination pieced together the fragments till they were once more a connected story. This generalship

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CARNEGIE BRANCH

has been a constant requisite for the novelist's art; and Browning has undoubtedly learned much from his abundant readings of the novels of his great contemporaries.

Perhaps the most important feature of Browning's recreative mastery is his conscientious truthfulness not merely to the larger facts of human nature, but to specific detail of this particular story. Evidently he made it a principle to use fact as he found it and to take to himself the congenial task of searching the motive behind the fact. He will supplement what is told, he will fill in the gaps, but he will not substitute a substantiated fact of the book by one that is more agreeable to his feelings. Such fidelity is doubtless a handicap to creative activity; it sets hard and fast bounds at many a point. Shakespeare had to observe the facts more or less when he dealt with English historical subjects; yet he assumed far more freedom than Browning did in retelling this utterly forgotten murder story. But apparently Browning had come to share the regard for fact which is so characteristic of the scientific nineteenth century. So "absolutely good is truth," he says, in "Fifine at the Fair." Browning's exactness may be illustrated in many ways. Thirty-three names of persons he takes directly from the book without change. Practically every locality in the progress of the story from Rome to Arezzo and back to Rome again is adopted and not invented. The minute chronology of the seventeen years of Francesca Pompilia's life is followed at all points, save in one significant detail. Incident after incident is likewise taken from the book, but they are given an iridescent coloring of motive by the poet's art. An interesting example is the comfit-throwing at the theatre. In Pompilia's affidavit in the book we read:

> While we were in a great crowd at the play one evening, Canon Conti, the brother of the husband of my sister-in-law, threw me some confetti. My husband, who was near me, took offence at it, but not against Conti, but against Caponsacchi, who was sitting beside the said Conti.

The poet tells the same fact in the words of Caponsacchi:

> Found myself at the theatre one night
> With a brother Canon, in a mood and mind
> Proper enough for the place, amused or no:
> When I saw enter, stand, and seat herself
> A lady, young, tall, strange, and sad. . . .
> I was still one stare,
> When—"Nay, I'll make her give you back your gaze"—
> Said Canon Conti; and at the word he tossed
> A paper-twist of comfits to her lap,
> And dodged and in a trice was at my back
> Nodding from over my shoulder. Then she turned,
> Looked our way, smiled the beautiful sad strange smile.
>
> —[Book VI., ll. 394-399, 406-412.

The chance moment had become a turning point in the hero's life, one of the crises which built themselves into his character. From that hour there was born in the Canon a new taste, a more serious view, a new regard for woman, and a new sense of duty to God and to the Church. In the book, there is nothing either to confirm or to controvert this spiritual significance of the incident.

Many descriptive features, especially those concerning the murder and the execution, are taken directly from the book. Here again a parallel will be of interest. In the book we read:

> The condemned were made to go down stairs and were placed upon separate carts to be drawn to the place of execution. Franceschini showed more intrepidity and composure than the others to the wonder of all. Many stands were constructed for the accommodation of those curious to see such a terrible execution and so great was the concourse of people that some windows brought as much as six dollars.

The poet throws this into blank verse:

> Palchetti were erected in the Place,
> The houses, at the edge of the Three Streets,
> Let their front windows at six dollars each. . . .
> The Count was led down, hoisted up on car,
> Last of the five, as heinousest, you know;
> Yet they allowed one whole car to each man.
> His intrepidity, nay, nonchalance,
> As up he stood and down he sat himself,
> Struck admiration into those who saw.
>
> —[Book XII., ll. 113-115, 132-137.

Browning's fidelity to his source-book is even more surprising in the monologues of the two lawyers, Books VIII. and IX. These have perhaps been the parts against which most readers of "The Ring and the Book" have protested; and even Stopford Brooke would pass by this portion. But to one who has read the book, it becomes evident that Browning was led to create these monologues by the impression the actual lawyers of the case made upon himself. The poet reproduces their professional jargon, their sophistries, their narrow and ignorant attitude; arguments, illustrations, citations of authority and precedent, and law-Latin he takes over verbatim from the source-book. The monologue of Archangeli indeed is a skilfully wrought mosaic in which the fragments from the book are laid in a new, grotesque design. This same lawyer's peroration of nearly two hundred Latin words is lifted almost bodily from the actual Archangeli's final argument.

The "Old Yellow Book" has also in all probability guided the poet in his unique and appropriate form—not straightforward narrative or architectonic drama, but the multiple-monologue which presents every phase of many-sided truth. Indeed, the book contains two semi-popular Italian narratives which distinctly suggested "Half Rome" and the "Other Half Rome."

Altogether, this old volume thrown by chance in Browning's way affords one of the most interesting opportunities for studying the transmuting power of genius. It convinces us also that fidelity to fact is not necessarily a handicap; and that the crudest of raw materials may become vital through the power of the master, and may admit of his highest and most significant expression of himself.

CHARLES W. HODELL.

The Woman's College of Baltimore.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The comparative study of the types of early printers, which might count its beginning from the publication of the late Robert Proctor's Index to the Early Printed Books in the British Museum and the Bodleian Library, will presumably receive a new impetus from the organization of the Gesellschaft für Typenkunde des xv. Jahrhunderts, which was organized last year and has now sent out its first publication (Leipzig: R. Haupt). The object of the society is to present (as a companion to Professor Haebler's "Typenrepertorium der Wiegendrucke" and the catalogue which is in preparation by the Prussian Commission for the cataloguing of incunabula), a facsimile collection of characteristic pages and as far as possible complete alphabets of all the types used during the fifteenth century. There are already two such comprehensive facsimile collections, the well-known "Monumenta Germaniæ et Italiæ Typographica," edited by Konrad Burger under the auspices of the Reichsdruckerei in Berlin; and that published by the London Type Facsimile Society founded by Proctor and working on the basis of his Index. The compass of Burger's work, however, is comparatively narrow, and the English collection, though not so limited, is issued in only fifty copies at a correspondingly high price. The object of the new society, which is international in scope, is to present ultimately a complete series of the types of the printers of the fifteenth century, and there is no intention to limit the number of subscribers. The membership fee, 25 marks a year, is moderate enough. It was originally the intention to issue 100 sheets a year, but on account of the small number of subscribers, only sixty will be issued the first year; of these thirty now lie before us. Each sheet gives, in addition to a page in the size of the original and the individual letters of the alphabet, references to similar types used by other well-known or unnamed printers and to descriptions in bibliographies. Several of the sheets just published are from books connected in one way or another with the recent studies of Dr. H. O. Lange in Copenhagen, whose "Analecta Bibliographica" has already received notice in these columns and of the society's secretary, D. D. Collijn in Upsala.

While the bibliography of the first half-century after the invention of printing has been the subject of extensive research by a horde of bibliographers, the sixteenth century is as yet largely an unbroken field. Monographs like K. Schottenloher's "Buchdruckertätigkeit Georg Erlingers in Bamberg" (Leipzig: Haupt), and C. Höfer's "Beiträge zu einer Geschichte des Coburger Buchdrucks" (Coburg: Riemann) are therefore welcome not only as pioneer work, but as material for the student of the Reformation period. Erlinger began his activity in 1522, as an enthusiastic adherent of the ideas of religious and social revolution. For the spreading of these ideas he worked as printer, bookseller, and writer. But they did not gain a strong foothold in Bavaria, the Church there was too powerful; and from 1525 Erlinger printed chiefly official documents for the bishop of Bamberg. The main purpose of Schottenloher's book is, of course, typographical and bibliographical, and he is able to show, more conclusively than Höfer, the connection between Erlinger and the Coburg printer Aegidius Fellenfürst. It appears that the latter's type came into Erlinger's possession and constituted his earliest stock in trade; later he replaced them with others, presumably of his own make. His last dated work is from 1543. Höfer carries the story of printing in Coburg to the year 1564, through the careers of three printers: Fellenfürst, Hans Bern, and Cyricaus Schnauss.

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Correspondence.

PRESERVATION OF CUBAN NATIONAL ARCHIVES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A recent publication of the Carnegie Institute, Luis M. Perez's "Guide to the Materials for American History in Cuban Archives," describes the deplorable condition in which the national archives were found when the provisional government assumed control of Cuban affairs in September last. It also recounts the measures taken by Major E. St. J. Greble, under instructions from Gov. Magoon, for shelving the rooms in which the archives are now stored and for placing the broken *legajos* where they can be sorted and preserved from further injury.

It may interest historical students to learn that in furtherance of the work of preservation the Governor issued last month an official decree prohibiting absolutely the removal of documents from the files of the archives, and ordering the return of such as have been loaned or abstracted either with or without permission. His decree further provides that hereafter a fee of five cents shall be charged for each sheet of copy issued by the keeper, and that new documents shall be forwarded for filing, properly bound or sewed together, with an inventory in duplicate duly signed by the department official responsible for sending them. Courts, government officers, public officials, or private persons who acquire access to papers or documents for reference or note-taking, must obtain a special permit from the Department of Government (Departamento de Gobernación), which permit may be refused in the case of private individuals, shall the department deem the issuance unadvisable. Persons who damage or remove without permission documents exhibited for reference shall be proceeded against under the provisions of articles 587 and 589 of the Penal Code.

Edwin Morgan,
American Legation.

Havana, Cuba, September 19.

OVERDONE INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. F. B. Gummere, in your issue of September 19, has struck a resonant chord, and so timely that I want to strike it again if only to keep the sound a little longer in our ears. Two days before reading his article, in a letter to a teacher who asked advice about the organization of high school work, I wrote:

> I have but one conviction—that there cannot be too much good instruction in grammar and composition, and in reading aloud; but the teaching of literature would be wisely curtailed.

And two months ago, in a tract which I trust will some time get out of the printing office, I entered a protest against including prose fiction in the curriculum of the secondary schools. If we are to continue in the present drift, let us make haste to give credit for marbles and football.

It is not, of course, that literature, even in the form of the simplest fiction is unworthy. I trust I share the utmost enthusiasm of those who feel its inestimable moral and cultural value. But the lighter literature requires no teaching; its office is supplementary; it belongs in the margins of the day's work. Why, as Professor Gummere intimates, try to *teach* "Ivanhoe" when it should be read with an avidity that brooks no denial or should not be read at all? As for the deeper and finer things, so far as they are not purely intellectual and therefore of fairly general appeal, they must, for all but the most imaginative, wait upon that experience of life and sharpening of sensibility which alone will make them luminous. Moreover, the teacher who can impart their significance is nearly as rare as the pupil who is ready to grasp it. One would hesitate to trust many teachers to do anything more with, let us say, Matthew Arnold's "The Forsaken Merman" than perhaps to require his pupils to learn it by heart. Indeed, teachers in this field are sadly bewildered, and most of them would have to confess that they do not know just what they are trying to teach. Certainly the labor expended is out of all proportion to the meagre results achieved. Tens of thousands of pupils are haled through a prescribed course of English masterpieces, only to turn no less contentedly in the end to the solace of the Sunday newspaper, the scrap-bag magazine, and the "storiette."

Would I give up all attempt to teach literature? I would give up nearly all prescription of it. The history of literature may be taught, when it is desired; it is as worthy as the history of other things. And there is always plenty to do in the field of grammar and rhetoric, in the mere mastery of this English speech of ours, ennobled as it has been by so many great voices. I have just been undergoing some illuminating experience. In the attempt to wrestle with this very problem, which meets us in the colleges as well, I have undertaken to guide a class of freshmen through certain prose classics. We have begun with Bacon's Essays, and it sometimes looks as if we should not get any farther. It is no less than astonishing how little the students understand. Only one in sixty can even guess what Bacon means by saying that communion with friends will "evaporate thy affections," while they pass over as quite too simple for consideration his statement that a certain wily trick in diplomacy is "a thing of great patience, but yet of much use." They can scarcely be trusted to interpret aright a single sentence. However, the teacher's dismay in discovering this is equalled by his delight in discovering that they can be made to understand. Bacon is not too deep. It is mostly a matter of being able to construe English sentences and becoming alert to the varied and subtle meanings of words. Here is disciplinary work of the best type, and such as cannot fail to yield measurable results. Verily, so long as the mother-tongue is so little understood as to jeopard the reputation for wisdom of one of our wisest moral counsellors, there is work enough to do in English without straying down the flowery paths of fiction.

While I am on this subject, let me say a word about another abuse—the use of over-edited text-books, perhaps a natural result of the general bewilderment as to what there is in literature to teach. The maker of the text-book, having found something, or at least imagining that he has found something, kindly tells the puzzled or jaded teacher all about it. But he tells the pupil, too, and the pupil, having nothing at all to find for himself, goes uninstructed in precisely the kind of instruction that he needs most. For my freshman class in Bacon I am employing a judiciously edited text that gives scarcely three notes to an essay. I might have used a text (printed by the Cambridge University Press, too) that contains from ten to twenty-five paraphrases at the foot of every page—half-page rather! But it would have left my students absolutely nothing to think out for themselves, therefore without any mental discipline, and, I suspect, without the ability to read Bacon in the end.

As for the inner spirit of literature, which we have so long hungered and striven to teach, may it not be largely trusted to find its way? The teacher who really feels it will never be able to conceal his feeling. The radiation that reaches him will be radiated in turn, the communicable communicated to so many as are ready to share in that grace. But the less ostentatiously this is done, the better. Prescription is the sheerest folly.

A. G. Newcomer.

Stanford University, Cal., September 25.

WORDSWORTH ON SPELLING REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: During the innocuous discussion of "simplified spelling" has any one hitherto noticed the following opinion of Wordsworth, recorded in the "Memoirs" (vol. ii, p. 458) by his nephew?

> He mentioned incidentally [October, 1846] that the spelling of our language was very much fixed in the time of Charles the Second, and that the attempts which had been made since, and are being made in the present day, were not likely to succeed.

Attempts at what? And what has become of them? Lane Cooper.

Ithaca, N. Y., September 25.

MR. BURTON AND THE CLEVELAND CHARTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the interest of the future historian, it may be worth noting that there is a slight inaccuracy in your reference to the charter of the city of Cleveland in the editorial article of September 12, dealing with the candidacy of Mr. Burton. Speaking of the mayoralty, you say:

> The office of Mayor has been clothed with more power. The tendency of all the new city charters is to centre responsibility in him. In that aspect Cleveland's charter is one of the most progressive, and if Mr. Burton is chosen Mayor, he will have a free hand in moulding the municipal administration.

It is just because Mr. Burton will *not* have a free hand in moulding the municipal administration that the most judicious friends of Mr. Burton grieve sorely that he has allowed himself to be inveigled into a contest that will probably not redound to his credit even though he should be successful, which is by no means assured. To an impartial observer he presents the sorry spectacle of a man of intellect, culture, and distinction lending himself on the one hand to the sordid purposes of the small-fry city politicians, and

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on the other hand to the "larger" views, the higher politics, of the national administration. The one class is making desperate efforts to get "in on the inside" of the municipal trough; the other class is not oblivious to the prestige accruing from the "redemption" of the largest city in the State in the prosecution of the Taft candidacy.

But be that as it may, it is certain that Mr. Burton will find himself deceived should he be elected. Cleveland once upon a time had a progressive charter—the so-called Federal plan. Five years ago, however, at the behest, it is commonly believed, of Senator Hanna, then the Republican State leader, and with the avowed object of Mayor Johnson's political destruction, every city government in the State was overturned, and at an extraordinary session of the General Assembly in 1902 a new municipal code uniform over the State was enacted. Squinting at the incipient machine of the budding Johnson, the executive power of the Mayor was greatly curtailed, and boards galore were instituted. The powers of the municipal government were carefully decentralized. The legal powers of the Mayor's office are now small. The actual power wielded by Cleveland's present executive is due to a combination of qualities wholly foreign to Mr. Burton. Eminent as a statesman and legislator of national scope, he would need to bring to the task at the City Hall of Cleveland a rare synthesis of cajolery, demagoguery, bossism, and — a popular cause. And just because such a condition of things is the legitimate fruit of the Ohio system of municipal government, it ill becomes a Republican, as a Republican, to cry out against machine methods when the only present alternative is dilettante inefficient government. And history does not record that Mr. Burton uttered a single protest when party expediency dictated this municipal code outrage upon the people of the State.

Isn't it a pity that his fine talents should be employed in a field where they will inevitably be so tragically ineffective? Has his Nemesis come to plague him?

A. B.

Elyria, O., September 23.

THE FISHERY QUESTION IN NEWFOUNDLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems to be at last definitely settled that the interpretation of disputed questions between England and America concerning the agreement of 1818, known in diplomacy as the Convention of Ghent, is to be submitted to the newly created permanent Tribunal of International Arbitration at The Hague. As it is really the first important question submitted to this new court, the issue will be watched with great interest.

Without going into the history of this very remarkable convention, which public opinion in America is at last beginning to see in its true light as a one-sided and obsolete agreement, an intolerable burden on a British colony and entirely unsuited to modern conditions, we may note that one characteristic of the arrangement comes out very distinctly. England's sovereignty over Newfoundland is clearly defined, and the territorial privileges given to the inhabitants of the United States are very definitely limited. The reason for this strict limitation is very clear: England at the time had no fisheries rights to give away as she had already made over to the French a virtually exclusive territorial and fishery jurisdiction over the west coast. This was done to make the Bourbons more acceptable to the French and to uphold the principles of monarchy. The Americans were only allowed to buy *wood*, not fuel, and it has been decided that they have no right to purchase *coal*. They may obtain water, and enter port for shelter, and repairs, but "for no other purpose whatsoever." All this is definite and distinct. There is no room for question or ambiguity. At the Halifax Convention the American commissioners very frankly admitted that their countrymen had no right to buy bait, hire men, obtain supplies, or do any trade with the natives. The only questions to be submitted to the Hague Tribunal, therefore, concern the fishery privileges.

The fishing rights are given to inhabitants of the United States (not to ships or crews), in common with his majesty's subjects, to take fish of every kind along the coasts of part of Newfoundland, "and on the coasts, bays, harbors, and creeks" of Labrador. In Newfoundland the rights of Americans are confined to the coasts. In Labrador they are more general and extend to harbors, etc. One of the first questions, therefore, will be a definition of the term coast, and the extent of American fishery privileges on the shores of Newfoundland. Is it confined to the outer coast, or does it extend into narrow bays and harbors? The two really vital questions between the two countries are:

First, are American fishermen visiting Newfoundland, bound to obey the local revenue laws, to enter their vessels on arrival at the colonial custom house, clear when they leave, and pay light dues? Canada has always compelled them to do so, and Newfoundland claims the same right. Every civilized country has a right to adopt all reasonable precautions to prevent its revenues being robbed. Why should Newfoundland be debarred from the same exercise of authority? It is well known that the Gloucester men are notorious smugglers, and always carry a special supply of goods known as "the slop chest" to barter with the natives.

The really important question of all is the control of the fishery. It is to be carried on in common with his majesty's subjects. Who is to regulate it? It is sound international law that the sovereign power alone can exercise coercive jurisdiction within its own territory and jurisdiction. In a common fishery its regulations should be absolutely fair and reasonable. They should be framed for the clear and definite purpose of protecting the common fishery from wanton injury and destruction. Let us test the question in this way: American fishermen have lately been caught and punished for using dynamite on the coasts of Nova Scotia. Will any one for a moment contend that Newfoundland would not have the same right to punish offenders of this kind, or any one who might use a destructive engine whose general effect would cause injury, curtailment, or destruction of the common fishery?

Public opinion in America is being gradually enlightened on this question. Gloucester alone prevents the Hay-Bond treaty being ratified by the Senate, a treaty which, in return for the fullest privileges in Newfoundland waters given to Americans, allows a free entry into the United States for the fish and natural products of the colony. It is a most reasonable arrangement. The present outrageous tax of three-quarters of a cent a pound on all foreign fresh fish imported into the States is put on simply to enrich Lodge's smugglers, as they have been well called, and to compel the eighty millions of American citizens to eat dear fish while there is an unbounded supply in British North America, whose natural market is in the republic.

The question is asked by some American papers, Why does the Newfoundland government still fight against the *modus vivendi*, when the Sunday fishing, the use of purse seines, and the obligation to obey the local customs laws are all conceded? The answer is very simple. The *modus* is an illegal attempt to override the laws of a self-governing colony; it is direct contravention of the terms of the treaty and concedes rights to foreigners neither included nor intended by the convention. It is further a breach of a solemn promise made by England in 1857, that our fishery rights should never again be either lessened or given away to a foreign Power without our consent.

D. W. Prowse.

St. Johns, Newfoundland, September 6.

Notes.

Duffield & Co. announce as forthcoming this month "Historic Churches of America," by Nellie Urner Wallington, with an introduction by Edward Everett Hale; "The Holy Graal and Other Fragments," by Richard Hovey; "Gypsy Verses," by Helen Hay Whitney; an illustrated edition of "Stories from the Old Testament for Children," by Harriet S. Blaine Beale; and "Childhood," by Millicent and Githa Sowerby, a volume of verses and pictures by two sisters whose work has attracted considerable attention in England.

The forthcoming double section of the "Oxford English Dictionary" has been enlarged so as to complete the letter N (Niche-Nywe) and the volume. It is the work of W. A. Craigie. Vol. vii., O-P, has already been published as far as Pargeted, and vol. viii., Q-S, as far as Ree.

An illustrated edition of "The Poems of Samuel Taylor Coleridge" will be issued by John Lane Company this autumn. Poems hitherto unpublished in book form will be included. The illustrations are from original drawings by Gerald Metcalfe. The same firm announces "The Sentimental Traveller," in which Vernon Lee takes her readers through Germany, France, and Switzerland.

From the Macmillan Company we receive a reprint of the "Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century," by

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Philip Alexander Bruce. In its review of that book, May 21, 1896, the *Nation* spoke of it as "the best history of the early agricultural growth of any State in the Union."

"A Consideration of the State of Ireland in the Nineteenth Century," by G. Locker Lampson, the English edition of which was reviewed in the *Nation*, June 28, is now on the regular list of E. P. Dutton & Co.

G. G. Coulton's "From St. Francis to Dante" was first published in 1906, and that a second edition should be called for in a year shows the interesting character of the work. Mr. Coulton has added a good deal of fresh matter from Salimbene's inimitable and highly realistic chronicle, and has extended the notes and appendices. For those who wish to see the seamy side of the Middle Ages, this is the best book in English.

The coming of Christmas is heralded by attractive reprints. T. Y. Crowell & Co. are early in the field with a number of volumes on thin paper in limp leather. One group contains seven of Victor Hugo's novels in eight volumes, "Les Misérables" occupying two. Another set gives nine of Dumas's best works, including "Monte Cristo," "The Three Musketeers," "Twenty Years After," and "The Vicomte de Bragelonne." Nine other volumes are added, of a miscellaneous character.

Edward Manley of the Englewood High School, Chicago, has edited for Ginn & Co. a volume from Prosper Mérimée, "Carmen and Other Stories." The sketches, "Les Bohémiens," "Les Voleurs de Grands Chemins de l'Andalousie," and "Les Courses de Taureaux" will indicate the varied style of the novelist. A biographical outline, notes, and vocabulary complete the volume. As Mérimée's "Colomba" is one of the most popular of modern French narratives adapted to classroom use, this volume exhibiting other aspects of the author's skill will be welcome.

Notwithstanding the variety of good German grammars already on the market, Dr. Francis Kingsley Ball of the Phillips Exeter Academy has tried his hand at another, encouraged no doubt by the success of his "German Drill Book." The arrangement of the matter is topical, and the author seeks to drive home each topic within the space of a two-page lesson. The exercises are supposed to have sufficient continuity to furnish materials for conversation, but as a matter of fact the connection is not of the closest. There is a ten-page supplement with the more important facts of English grammar treated side by side with the German. D. C. Heath & Co. are the publishers.

To the growing interest of college students in foreign missions, Dr. Arthur Judson Brown's "The Foreign Missionary, an Incarnation of a World Movement" (F. H. Revell Company), is largely due. Though there are numerous histories of missions and biographies of missionaries, there has been no general work on the man himself to which the student looking forward to this field could go for information, or which could be used as a text-book in the mission study classes in our colleges and churches. To supply this need, the secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions has prepared this volume. It would have been difficult to find one better fitted for the task. Not only has he had for twelve years the oversight of a society which has brought him into intimate association with missionaries scattered over the heathen world, but, an extensive traveller, he has seen the missionary at work and he writes of the problems from personal experience. Beginning with a statement of the missionary motive and aim, he describes simply and clearly the essential qualifications for the work, then passes on to a detailed account of the missionary's relations to the society which sends him out, his duties to it, and its obligations to him. The principal arguments against foreign missions are briefly stated and answered, and the book closes with a striking portrayal of the modern missionary, not as a saint on a pedestal with a halo about his head, but as "preëminently a man of affairs," whose chief reward here is the conviction that he is using life to the very best advantage in laying foundations for future Christian nations. Dr. Brown has an attractive style and his book is enlivened with numerous quotations from biographies, reports, and addresses, and with an occasional humorous anecdote. We only regret, and it is our single criticism, that he has not given some information as to the way in which young English, German, and Swiss candidates are prepared for missionary work in Asia and Africa. It is with great satisfaction, however, that we note that he is an earnest advocate of the policy of not making the missionary aim at the establishment of a branch of an American church in India or in China, but at the foundation of a self-supporting and self-governing body, which, while holding the fundamental doctrines of the Christian faith, shall adopt a church organization and ritual adapted to racial characteristics and circumstances.

"Einleitung in das Neue Testament," by Prof. Theodor Zahn of the University of Erlangen, two massive volumes in large octavo, together about fourteen hundred pages, the second edition of which appeared as late as 1899, has now been published in the third edition, correctly described by the author as "vielfach berichtigte und vervollständigte Auflage" (Leipzig: Georg Boehme). The significance of this work lies in the fact that on the whole it is a bulwark of the traditional views of the origin and authenticity of the New Testament books, and yet the product of a scholar of high repute. Notwithstanding its strong conservatism, the book is critical and keenly analytic, and Zahn has independent views on not a few subjects.

An aggressive movement is in progress, chiefly in Germany, for the purpose of undermining the Wellhausen school of Old Testament criticism. The head of the new school is the Berlin Assyriologist, Professor Hugo Winckler, and the movement, known as Panbabylonism, aims not at an overthrow of the literary substructure of Wellhausen's theories, but at a reconstruction of the history of Israel's religion along the lines of natural development. Panbabylonism finds in the old religious ideas of Babylonia and the Orient in general, the evidence of a highly developed astral-mythological scheme, and traces the details of this scheme in the religion of both the Old and the New Testaments. This school has recently organized a Gesellschaft für vergleichende Mythenforschung, which has begun the publication of a series of popular works in advocacy of its views, entitled Im Kampfe um den alten Orient. Two of these have just appeared, one entitled "Die Panbabylonisten, der alte Orient und die ägyptische Religion," by Alfred Jeremias; and the other by Winckler himself, called "Die jüngsten Kämpfe wider den Panbabylonismus." The new school is remarkably prolific. Professor Peter Jensen, of Marburg, has issued a volume of one thousand pages on the Gilgamesh Epic of the Babylonians, and he finds the hero of it to be the prototype not only of many Old Testament characters, but even of Jesus himself. More recently E. Stucken has issued a work entitled "Astralmythen der Hebräer, Babylonier and Ägypter," (Leipzig: Pfeiffer); while the more theological side of the new scheme is brought out in the second edition of Jeremias's "Das alte Testament im Lichte des alten Orients" (Leipzig: Hinrichs), with 216 illustrations and two charts. Perhaps the best general guide to the literature and ideals of this new school is the work of O. Weber, "Die Literatur der Babylonier und Assyrier, ein Überblick. (Leipzig: Hinrichs.) This work we shall consider later at some length.

In the publication of the third volume of Th. Granderach's "Geschichte des Vatikanischen Konsils von seiner ersten Ankündigung bis zu seiner Vertagung," edited on the basis of authentic documents by K. Kirsch, S.J., and published by Herder of Freiburg-im-B., this virtually official record of the historic church council of 1870, that brought with it as its chief outcome the promulgation of the doctrine of papal infallibility, has reached its close. This new volume discusses the development of the council from the third public meeting down to the final adjournment. The ups and downs of the debate in word and writing are here described, with a clear report of the opposition to the doctrine of infallibility. The addresses of such anti-infallibilists as Schwarzenberg, Hauscher, Ketteler, Darboy, and others are given more or less completely, and the vote of July 13, which was encouraging to the opposition, is fully detailed. The last third of this volume describes how the dogma was received in the different states, and the means to which the Papal See resorted to compel the submission of the opposing bishops. This volume, like its two predecessors, is absorbing, notwithstanding the apologetical undercurrent that compels the reader to be discriminating. The whole work is without a doubt a leading source for the study of the history of the Vatican Council.

The literature of book-trade biographies has recently been enriched by a life of Emil Strauss, bookseller and publisher in Bonn, written by Dr. Oskar von Hase, head of Breitkopf & Härtel in Leipzig, and author of an important historical study of the old Koberger family of printers and publishers in Nürnberg. A nephew of David Friedrich Strauss, the young bookseller soon after his establishment in 1870 published the uncle's "Nachwort als Vorwort zur 4. Auflage meiner Schrift 'Der alte und neue Glaube,'" and ultimately secured from the original publishers the copyright of all Strauss's works, so that

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in 1876 he could publish an edition of his collected writings. With this as a basis Strauss built up a publishing house devoted largely to works representing modern liberal thought, *é. g.*, Haeckel's "Monismus!" and "Welträtsel." The last named was, indeed, the outcome of a suggestion by the publisher; Haeckel himself wrote to the author of the biography, "Without Emil Strauss the 'Riddle of the Universe' would not have been written; he prepared the way for it and pushed it through." Besides these and similar publications lying on the boundary line between religion and science, Strauss published a large number of works in pure science, such as J. Bouché's "Die insekten-fressenden Pflanzen," Heinrich Hertz's "Beziehungen swischen Licht und Elektrizität," and not a few in history, philology, etc. His art publications were important, and in many cases were the results of his own suggestions; for instance, Ullbrich's etchings from Rome, which were originated during a journey to that city by the publisher and the artist. Strauss was also the publisher of Carmen Sylva. But he was not only publisher; this branch was long a side issue to his retail business. A direct outgrowth of the retail business was the remainder trade which Strauss developed and put in its present recognized place in Germany. Dr. Hase's book is not merely a biography of one German bookseller, it is a contribution to the history of the recent struggle within the trade, in which Strauss took a leading part.

W. Spemann of Stuttgart announces that he will publish this year the "Geschichte des niederen Volkes in Deutschland," a radical work in two volumes, whose author, under the pen name of Eccardus, will feel free to inquire into the deep mistrust and dissatisfaction on the part of the lower classes in Germany, notwithstanding the fact that their material condition has so greatly improved in late years.

"Die unsterbliche Kiste oder die 333 besten Witze der Weltliteratur," put together by Alex. Moszkowski, from the *Lustige Blätter*, is imported by G. E. Stechert & Co. Mark Twain is represented with his "Widow Stiggins"; but otherwise American humor is ignored, not even a single wonder from Chicago, such as so often proves a tempting morsel for the German journalist, being recorded.

The trustees of the E. J. W. Gibb Memorial Series have decided, very properly, to issue the late Sir J. W. Redhouse's translation of Al-Khazraji's History of the Rasulide Dynasty of Yemen, and the first part has now appeared, being vol. iii. of the series (Leyden: E. J. Brill; London: Luzac & Co). The dynasty, established as the Ayyubide was falling into decay, lasted over two hundred years (1232-1441); the history is here brought down to the year 1400. It is a faithful picture of the manners of the time, and is of special interest in view of recent events in Yemen. Redhouse's manuscript has been edited by E. G. Browne and R. A. Nicholson. These three names are a guarantee of accuracy. An Introduction gives a brief sketch of the history of Yemen from the earliest known times to the present. Volume iv. of the Gibb series contains "Umayyads and Abbasids," being the fourth part of J. Zaydan's History of Islamic Civilization, a work that has been favorably noticed by de Goeje; the translation is by Prof. D. S. Margoliouth of Oxford. The author is a Syrian, long resident in Cairo, where he edits the monthly magazine *Hilal*. His book, which consists of detached observations on the history, manners, and customs of the pre-Islamic Arabs and the various Islamic dynasties and communities, is valuable for the personal details it introduces, and is to be welcomed as the contribution of an Oriental Semite who has studied European works and learned something of a precise historical method. His references are to Arabic authorities. There is added a good index.

The last volume of the Archæologia, the tracts of the London Society of Antiquaries, does not yield to any of its predecessors in interest and variety. We notice that the Roman period is particularly well represented. Besides the reports of the Society's excavations at Caerwent and Silchester, there is an interesting account by F. Haverfield of two marble sculptures and a Mithraic relief found in London, and a contribution of some hundred pages on other discoveries, relating to the metropolis, by Philip Norman and Francis Reader. A good deal of space is also devoted to early and mediæval English history. Under this head belong Mr. Bidder's account of excavations in an Anglo-Saxon burial-ground at Mitcham Surrey, St. John Hope's paper on "The Loss of King John's Baggage in the Wellstream," that of Albert Hartshorne, "The Brass of Sir Hugh Hastings in Elsing Church, Norfolk," and Mr. Lethaby's "Palace of Westminster in the Eleventh and Twelfth Centuries." The pre-Christian period, on the other hand, does not figure so largely as usual, the only papers relating to it are Canon William Greenwell's "Early Iron Age Burials in Yorkshire," and Horace Sandars's "Pre-Roman Bronze Votive Offerings from Despeñaperros in the Sierra Morena." The volume has numerous and handsome illustrations. It is sold by the Society's agent, Bernard Quaritch.

Recent discoveries in the neighborhood of Edinburgh and as far north as the confines of Perth and Inverness shires are exciting among Scotsmen an unprecedented interest in the Roman occupation. Accumulating evidence that it took a far more solid hold than is currently supposed has stimulated the exertions of the Scottish Antiquaries and resulted in an appeal for funds to which public generosity is not slow in responding. Interest is guided and stimulated by what may truly be called the Roman Museum now open to inspection in the rooms of the Antiquaries on the ground floor of the National Portrait Gallery in Edinburgh. There may be seen the surprisingly rich bronze helmet and the remarkably beautiful iron tilting-helmet, or mask, recently unearthed at Newstead, being within a mile of Melrose Abbey. If the trips of tourists were not such cut-and-dried affairs, visitors to Abbotsford, Dryburgh, and Melrose might easily include in their purview the Roman camp and Roman baths which James Curle has there brought to light—the bath is now in process of excavation. Besides the helmets, Mr. Curle has found vases in bronze, helmets, swords, and axes, which, along with plentiful shards of "Samian" and other ware, suggest that Newstead was a very solid and firmly rooted outpost. Definite points showing evidence that there were three and probably four successive occupations here are made in detail by Mr. Curle in the *Scottish Historical Review* for July. His general drift may be summarily stated as follows: There is evidence of (1) a fort with an earthen rampart and an encircling palisade defended by a single ditch; (2) this same fort extended slightly and very considerably strengthened; (3) the same original fort reduced in size and provided with a wall parallel to its Via Quintana; and (4) a return to the area of (2), but this time with a rampart faced by a fall 7 ft. 6 in. thick and defended by triple ditches. The fort area is now restored to cultivation, and Mr. Curle has nearly completed excavation of the extensive bath immediately adjacent. Here he is finding varied and striking evidence in confirmation of the four successive occupations outlined above. In one place especially he who runs may read by inspecting the stratification of four pavements—each definitely characterized and differentiated from the two others. It is fortunate that, when all the evidence shall have been gathered by this season's excavations, the excavator will have the best of opportunities for presenting his results. He has just been appointed Rhynde lecturer for the coming season, and printed as well as oral publication is thus assured.

In a letter to the Wisconsin Library Commission, Dr. Reuben Gold Thwaites, secretary of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, recommends that the "story hour," which is becoming such a popular feature in library work with children, be utilized in developing the interest of children in local history. Even in Wisconsin, he says, where the materials of local history and tradition are comparatively scanty, there is still enough in most communities, if properly handled, to give interest and richness to the local background, and thus to awaken in young minds a feeling of local pride and patriotic sentiment; while in the older parts of the country there is a wealth of material for such uses. An instance is cited by Dr. Thwaites of the successful carrying out of such a plan in one of the older Wisconsin towns, where a series of eleven talks and readings on the history and romance of the district were given by the librarian, with an interest and attendance greater than that accorded to similar readings on Greek or Norse mythology.

The Verein Berliner Kaufleute und Industrieller, in conjunction with the Central Executive Committee of the Berlin Business and Industrial Association, has sent to the Culture Ministry of Prussia a strong petition urging that the study of the English language be made obligatory in the classical gymnasium course. The petitioners insist that knowledge of the English language has become a *sine qua non* in the interests of German business and the spread of German commerce.

News of the death of Josefa Naprstkova comes from Prague. She was the wife of Voitja Naprstk, who had devoted his life to building up in Prague a museum to illustrate the history and ethnology of Bohemia. After his death, his wife carried on the work, and thereby won for herself the intense love of the Bohemian people.

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FERRERO'S HISTORY OF ROME.

The Greatness and Decline of Rome. By Guglielmo Ferrero; translated by Alfred E. Zimmern. Volumes I. and II. Pp. vi., 328; vi., 389. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.25 net.

It requires considerable courage in these days of specialization to borrow the title of Montesquieu's famous essay and write a treatise on the greatness and decline of Rome. Historical fashions have changed since the eighteenth century; the general essay has disappeared before the special monograph, and students of history have been interested chiefly in the origin and development of states, leaving disquisitions upon their decline and fall to the public orator and the sociologist. In the field of Roman history this movement has cleared away a mass of legend and guesswork and greatly enlarged our knowledge of the real nature and workings of Roman institutions, but there is ground for thinking that it has also tended to emphasize unduly the period of Roman history which has the smallest general significance, and which, by reason of the paucity of trustworthy information, can never be satisfactorily known. We may, if we choose, share the ancient opinion of the virtues of early Roman days and admire the type of character which laid the foundations of Roman greatness under the early Republic; but Rome's great work for the world was done under the Empire, and in any large view of Roman history it is the Empire which must claim the principal place. There are signs that the interest in the later period is increasing, but the lack of any satisfactory general history of the Empire is still one of the great gaps in historical literature. Dean Merivale's elaborate prelude to Gibbon is hopelessly outgrown; Schiller's "Kaiserzeit" is useful, but inadequate; Mommsen's "Provinces" is only a small part of the great story and must be read by the layman with something of the self-denial with which it was written. How far Ferrero will go in his ambitious attempt to fill this gap it is as yet too soon to say, but it is an attempt that must at least be taken seriously. His work is generously planned; it rests upon a familiarity with the ancient sources of information which is quite remarkable in one whose reputation has hitherto been that of a writer on criminology and public affairs rather than on history; and it has literary quality and at times brilliancy. The three volumes which have appeared have already had considerable vogue in France, where their popularity was enhanced by the author's recent lectures at the Sorbonne—and perhaps by a preface to the French translation which proclaims Cæsar's conquest of Gaul to be the most important fact in Roman history—and it was high time for the publication of an English version.

After a preliminary sketch of five chapters Ferrero begins, like Merivale, with the death of Sulla in 78 B. C., and, under the caption "The Empire Builders," the first volume deals with the tangled and often obscure events of the succeeding twenty years, a transitional period, significant for the rise of new men and new policies, but not easy to treat in a unified and effective fashion. To Ferrero the most striking personality of this age is plainly Lucullus, whom he regards as "the strangest and most isolated figure in the whole history of Rome." Known to posterity only as a builder of villas and organizer of banquets, Lucullus here appears as the real creator of the new Imperialism which Pompey and Cæsar took up and turned to their own advantage through comprehending, as the aristocratic inflexibility of Lucullus could not, the new relations between commander and soldiers which corresponded to the changed conditions of Roman politics. This view of Lucullus is stated, indeed overstated, as follows:

> During the six years which he spent in the East he had made a revolution in Roman politics which it would be impossible to over-emphasize. His part in the history of Rome is so analogous to that of Napoleon in the history of Europe that we may perhaps justly define him as the Napoleon of the last century of the Republic. He found the foreign policy of the Roman Republic in very much the same condition as that in which Napoleon found the foreign policy of Europe at the end of the eighteenth century. It was embarrassed by traditions of slackness, paralyzed by an indecision which took alarm at shadows and gave way at once before any determined opposition, and accustomed to regard intrigue and procrastination as satisfactory substitutes for rapid and resolute action. It felt an almost sacred respect for the established order, and an extreme terror of laying a finger upon its familiar workings. It habitually preferred diplomacy to war, and never understood how to make the most of a success or drive home any vigorous effort, generally accepting some compromise which settled the question for the moment along the line of least resistance, at the risk of raising new and inevitable complications in the immediate future. This policy was not without a certain sagacity of its own, but it had become stultified by the very exaggeration of its own virtues. Like Napoleon eighteen centuries later, Lucullus effected a revolution in the methods of government. He substituted war for negotiation as the usual method of solving the difficulties of Eastern policy. He replaced the interminable machinations of senatorial intrigue by the sharp and vivid impression of his swift campaigns, with their bewildering attacks and their complete and amazing victories. By the adoption of a strong and sustained policy of aggression he succeeded in becoming the arbiter of the entire East, reducing one state after another to helplessness in a series of almost foolhardy campaigns. In this he was as overwhelmingly successful as Napoleon himself; for he reëstablished the equilibrium between the obsolete policy of the Senate and the changed circumstances of the day.

In the second volume, entitled "Julius Cæsar," the great dictator naturally occupies the largest place. Ferrero, however, is no hero-worshipper, and he has succeeded to a remarkable degree in freeing himself from the influence of Mommsen, whose glorification of Cæsar and Cæsarism has had so profound an influence upon the historical writing of the past half century. To Ferrero, Cæsar is "a man of genius, not a demi-god"; "he could see no farther than the other men of his day; and he acted, like all politicians, according to the impressions and the needs of the moment." Instead of being the outcome of a well-formed plan, a continuous effort toward a supreme goal, Cæsar's career was thwarted and twisted by circumstances and accidents, and his plans were continually being modified to correspond. He was "an incomparable opportunist." Seeking the *materia triumphorum* in Gaul, he went out "without any definite ideas of policy, and with only the meagrest knowledge of the country and its inhabitants." His war against the Helvetii was an egregious blunder, from which he was saved only by great good fortune, and the story would read very differently if we had Divico's memoirs instead of Cæsar's. His Egyptian sojourn was another serious blunder. He entered upon the civil war, "not out of lust for the supreme power, but to win a secure and honorable position in the aristocratic republic"; his unexpected success, which ostensibly made him master of the Roman world, really placed him in an impossible dilemma, from which he hoped to escape by the conquest of Parthia. He failed in the great political objects for which he strove, and he accomplished no great and enduring work of constructive statesmanship. Circumstances steadily proved too strong for him. We read further:

> Cæsar was a genius—a man whose powers have seldom or never been equalled in history. He was at once student, artist, and man of action; and in every sphere of his activity he left the imprint of greatness. His soaring yet intensely practical imagination, his wonderfully clear-cut and well-balanced intelligence, his untiring energy and lightning quickness of decision, his marvellous elasticity of temper and iron power of self-control, his indifference even at moments of the greatest strain to anything of the nature of sentiment or mysticism, would have made him, at any time in the world's history, one of the giants of his age. Under twentieth-century conditions he might have become a captain of industry in the United States or a great pioneer or mine-owner or empire-builder in South Africa, or a scientist or man of letters in Europe with a world-wide influence over his contemporaries. In the Rome of his day both family tradition and personal inclination forced him into politics. Political life is always perilous to the man of genius. There is no sphere of activity which is so much at the mercy of unforeseen accidents or where the effort put out is so incommensurable with the result obtained. In the field of Roman politics Cæsar succeeded in becoming a great general, a great writer, a great character. He failed to become a great statesman. . . . Cæsar was not a great statesman; but he was a great destroyer. In him were personified all the revolutionary forces, the magnificent but devastating forces, of a mercantile age in conflict with the traditions of an old-world society—its religious skepticism, its indifference to morality, its insensibility to family affection, its opportunist and undisciplined politics, its contempt for precedent and tradition, its Eastern luxury, its grasping militarism, its passion for the baser forms of commerce and speculation, its first tentative efforts toward intellectual refinement, its naïve enthusiasm for art and science. There is hardly a stranger irony in history than that the rulers of Germany and Russia should have assumed the title of this prince of revolutionaries. For we fail to grasp the true significance of Cæsar's career till we discern that, like Pompey and Crassus and the other great figures of his day, his mission was primarily destructive—to complete the disorganization and dissolution of the old world, both in Italy and the provinces, and thus make way for a stabler and juster system.

All this is a wholesome reaction from "the entire and perfect man" of Mommsen's imagination, and much of it is true. Ferrero is historically sound in bringing Cæsar down from the clouds and placing him in the every-day world of intrigue and petty rivalry which surrounded the public men of the later republic; and there is much that is suggestive in his efforts to trace the influence of varying conditions of health and environment upon Cæsar's policies and character. We come into closer touch with the man and realize better the complexity of the problems he had to face. On the whole, however, the effect is belittling, even to a greater degree than the author in-

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tends, for the body of the narrative does not support the characterizations of the concluding paragraphs. Ferrero calls Cæsar a great general, but the account of his campaigns does not lead the reader to that conclusion. We are told that he was a great genius and a great character, but the story of intrigue and expedient leaves only the impression of an astute politician of the Tammany type. He who has been a rather ordinary man throughout the volume cannot suddenly be made great at the end. And whatever Cæsar was, he was not ordinary.

Cæsar's opponents, as one might expect, fare better at Ferrero's hands, and the judgments, though less noteworthy, are in the main just. There is warm appreciation of Cicero's literary talent and even a defence of his much criticised administration of Cilicia; he "was neither cruel, nor rapacious, nor insincere, ... but there were qualities in his nature which forbade him to be powerful." It reminds one of Mommsen to find Pompey called "a *grand seigneur* who thought himself a great man," but the following summing up shows an evident desire to be fair:

> Pompey was not a fool, as several modern historians in their enthusiasm for Cæsar have been pleased to call him, but a typical, and in some ways exceedingly capable, aristocrat, with all the faults and all the virtues of the old nobility, upon whom the circumstances of his time had imposed a task which was far beyond his powers. If he lacked the consuming activity and the unwearied intellectual energy of his successful rival, yet it must be remembered that he owed his fall not merely to the blunders which he himself committed, but also, and in a far greater degree, to the vices and faults of the upper classes, whose champion circumstances rather than any deliberate policy had forced him to become. Nor must we forget the very considerable part which he played in the history of Rome. He annexed to the Roman Empire the country of Christ, with results of perhaps even supremer importance than the occupation of Gaul. Moreover, by the building of his theatre, by the festivals he gave to the people, and by his indiscriminate liberality, he did more almost than any one to disseminate Eastern culture throughout Italy, to give Rome a taste for the luxury of the imperial epoch whose remains we still continue to admire and even to imitate.

The freshness and point of his characterizations show that Ferrero has a strong interest in the personal element in history, but, as the treatment of Cæsar makes clear, he is not one of those for whom the course of historical development is shaped by a few dominant personalities. Human history he conceives as "the unconscious product of an infinity of small and unnoticed efforts"; and "its work is done, spasmodically and in disorder, by single individuals or groups of individuals, acting generally from immediate motives, with results which always transcend the knowledge and intentions of contemporaries, and are but seldom revealed, darkly and for a moment, to succeeding generations. To find a clue to the immediate, accidental, and transitory motives which have pricked on the men of the past to their labors" becomes, accordingly, an important part of the historian's task. Motive-hunting, however, in spite of its fascination, is dangerous business, as the example of Tacitus shows; it easily passes beyond the available evidence into the field of conjecture and subjective interpretation and by filling in the gaps with the author's assumptions, it tends to modernize ancient characters in an unhistorical fashion. These dangers Ferrero does not succeed in avoiding. He has an acute mind, sharpened by studies in morbid psychology, and the Italian gift, so useful in this confused period of Roman politics, of following out a tangled series of intrigues, but the intrigues are sometimes of his own creation and the portrayal of motives often subjective. The account of Cleopatra, for example, though it may seem consistent enough to the author of "La Donna Delinquente," lacks sufficient support from ancient writers.

One of the best features of Ferrero's treatment of this period is the attention given to economic and social history. It is his main thesis that the Roman conquest of the ancient world was the result of "the growth of a nationalist and industrial democracy on the ruins of a federation of agricultural aristocracies"; and he traces in Italy the spread of commerce and industry, the growth of towns, the rise of the bourgeoisie, and the changes in the conditions of life throughout the peninsula. There is less on the decline of agriculture than is to be found in most works on Roman history, but there is an account of the process by which, "to match the changeless beauty of her sky and sea, Italy eagerly cast off her old barbaric trappings of corn and wood for a more smiling vesture of vine and olive"; and the introduction of the cherry tree into Italy is set down among the most important results of the campaigns of Lucullus in the East. There are also some sensible remarks on the corn trade, pointing out the necessity of state purchases and distributions under ancient conditions of commerce. The intellectual movement is likewise not neglected, although the attempts to connect literature with political events are forced and often conjectural. Indeed, Ferrero's treatment of all non-political topics suffers from a lack of continuity arising from his close adherence to the annalistic method of the ancient historians. The history of a war may quite properly be written "by summers and winters," after the model of Thucydides, but by their very nature social and economic changes generally defy exact dates, and to assign them to specific years is to sin against historical accuracy, as well as against effective presentation.

Here and there, as in the passages last quoted, it is pleasant to note the touches which reveal the Italian's feeling for the soil and sense of the continuity of history in the peninsula. Most of us are not in the habit of regarding Cæsar as an Italian, and only a fellow-countryman of Dante and Garibaldi would remark, apropos of Cæsar's sojourn in Ravenna on the eve of the Civil War, that this little town "seems predestined to be the refuge of great Italians in the stormy hours of their career." We are also glad to see that, while the bibliography is somewhat provincial in its omissions and in its abundant citations of minor Italian monographs, the work as a whole is singularly free from the spirit of hostility to foreign scholarship which appears in the writings of certain Italian students of Roman history and archæology, and sometimes degenerates into personal malignity. Such chauvinism is not needed to maintain the intellectual independence of a country which is producing such excellent, and such varied, work as that of Ferrero and Pais and many lesser writers upon ancient Rome.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Weavers. By Gilbert Parker. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Seldom since the appearance of "Peer Gynt" has a work of imagination showed a more cosmopolitan range of dramatis personæ than Sir Gilbert Parker has assembled in "The Weavers." There are English Quakers, Egyptian eunuchs, a drunken Romish chairmaker, a duchess, a stage Chicagoan, a lady of English, Celtic, American-Dutch extraction, effendis, pashas, palace intrigues, murders, and a great many dreams. All the characters talk at great length; every event is narrated at least twice, sometimes oftener; and the effect of the whole is singularly lacking in movement. Although Sir Gilbert Parker uses a civilized if somewhat heavy English, and puts his book together in practised fashion, his treatment of Egyptian troubles culminating in the siege (presumably) of Alexandria, on the whole lacks the brilliancy given to the same event by the late Archibald Clavering Gunter. It is hard to believe that "The Weavers" comes from the same hand which once gave so thoughtful and sincere a study of character as Charley in "The Right of Way."

Helena's Path. By Anthony Hope. New York: The McClure Co.

Anthony Hope Hawkins labors under the disadvantage of having written early in his career two books, each in its kind of unusual interest: "The Prisoner of Zenda," and "The Dolly Dialogues." The question commonly asked in regard to a new work from his pen is whether it is like—or as good as—either of these. In the case of "Helena's Path," the answer to both inquiries must be no. And yet the style is crisp and with frequent happy turns—as when excesses of costume are described as "that facile path to a barren eccentricity." The story, too, moves very rapidly. The theme is conceived in a vein of high fantasy—the love affair between two brilliant persons: Lord Lynborough, whose "profile stood as carved in fine ivory," and the Marchesa di San Servolo, whose profile could be compared "to nothing less than a Roman empress on an ancient silver coin." They begin with a theatre quarrel, which runs through all the stages to proposal and acceptance. Neither the characters nor their actions are of this earth, earthy; but the tale is not on that account the less vivacious and amusing.

Santa Fé's Partner. By Thomas A. Janvier. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The American cowboy and miner—Bret Harte's kind—are said to be obsolescent, but there is no sign of their passing in current fiction or drama. The magazines are full of the jargon of the plains, and the popular stage blazes with Western color. Perhaps fear accounts for our renewed enthusiasm over this theme. What a dreadful thing if our one picturesque asset should be lost! Every man to his derringer, and a bead on the first tenderfoot who ventures to hint that it is not all real!

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It is noticeable that while on the stage, as is natural, the heroic West holds its own, in fiction we are lapsing to a contemplation of the humorous West. "I've been around considerable in the Western country," says Mr. Janvier's interlocutor, "and I've seen quite a little, one way and another, of the folks living there; but I can't really and truly say I've often come up with them nature's noblemen—all the time at it doing stunts in natural nobility—the story-books make out is the chief population of them parts." Palomitas, the scene of the operations of Santa Fé and his partner, is supposed to be a place in Indian Territory "where the track got stuck"; and while the rail-laying awaits further contributions from the English stockholders of the new road, the camp remains and degenerates—a town without occupation and without laws. Santa Fé is, on the whole, the chief scalawag, a professional gambler and sharper; with his black clothes and his suavity, plus utter selfishness, a rather obvious reduction to the real of the chief outcast of Poker Flat. His partner is a very close female version of him, pleasantly known as the Sage-brush Hen; and their hilarious joint adventures are amusing in a broad way. Much the usual tenderfoot subjects are provided for their experiments—a representative of the aforesaid English stockholders, a maiden aunt from Vermont, and a preposterous sportsman from Boston. In the end resumption of work upon the railway and a rising tide of virtue exile Santa Fé and his partner, as their prototypes, Jack Hamlin et al., were exiled from Poker Flat. It is all good magazine copy, though hardly more.

Growth. By Graham Travers (Margaret Todd, M.D.). New York: Henry Holt & Co.

This seems a survival or revival of a type of story much attended to a decade or two ago, the religious novel. Robert Elsmere, however people may have felt about him, was an important figure in his day. He was talked about; his soul was a matter of moment even to the ungodly; and he had many imitators. Now it all seems a trifle out of date. "Growth" was, we should say, written primarily for Scotch Presbyterians. Edinburgh supplies the setting, and the protagonists are all persons living more or less consciously in the shadow of the kirk. The sad, dour ardors of the Covenanters' faith, the strict creed, the stricter discipline—these are matters with which the reader of this story will be much occupied. A young countryman, son of a Presbyterian minister, comes up to the University, expecting to prepare for the ministry. At first he is full of zeal for his books and the church life; but presently he begins to rebel against the narrowness of it all. He makes cheerful acquaintances, who are ready to talk on other than theological subjects. He goes to the theatre for the first time in his life, and falls in love with the leading lady. She, as it happens, is a good woman, the sister of his best friend, a young parson of much promise, for the sake of whose position the relationship is concealed. The boy discovers a relationship, but misunderstands it. Much tribulation follows, involving a perilous approach to moral disintegration on the boy's part. He comes right in the end, however, as do the other persons concerned—though not right according to kirk standards. There are two characters in the book more interesting than the nominal hero—very modern persons both, and strikingly in contrast with that rather crude and jejune youth.

The Domestic Adventurers. By Josephine Dodge Daskam. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

One fears Mrs. Bacon may come to be numbered among that rather large class of American story-writers who have been spoiled by an early magazine popularity. The peculiar style of workmanship involved has merits rather journalistic than literary; above all, an unbalancing premium is paid to smartness. Mrs. Bacon has scored so often by virtue of sheer hard cleverness that it is not to be wondered at if the note grows yet harder and thinner as time goes on. "The Domestic Adventurers," to be sure, is good-natured enough—a chronicle of certain typical experiences with the American servant, varied by "a spice of love interest," as the book advertisements are wont to say. Three unmarried New York ladies (perish the thought of old maids), aged respectively twenty-nine, thirty-four, and forty, after a somewhat prolonged experience of city flats, take a house in a suburb. To the thirty-four-year-old the part of housekeeper falls, since she has no stated profession, while the youngest teaches in a fashionable boarding-school, and the oldest is an editor. The housekeeper tells the story, giving an account of her contact with the servant problem, and of the supposed love affairs of the gay young schoolmistress. Eventually the supposed lovers bestow themselves somewhat unexpectedly to the persons in the book, if not to the reader.

The House of the Vampire. By George Sylvester Viereck. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co.

The Vampire is a man of letters, living in contemporary New York, a dominating creative genius, "whose style possessed at once the chiselled chasteness of a Greek marble column and the elaborate deviltry of the late Renaissance. At times his winged words seemed to flutter down the page frantically like Baroque angels; at other times nothing could have more adequately described his manner than the timeless calm of the gaunt pyramids." Reginald Clarke attains his universality by quietly vampiring every one with whom he comes in contact, or at least any one to whose talent he takes the slightest fancy. If it be a music-hall singer with one note in her voice, he manages to appropriate the note. Thus when he reads his new play to Ernest Fielding, Fielding at once recognizes it as a child of his own imagination to which he had not yet given birth. This is not a case of common plagiarism. The Vampire works, so to speak, while his victims sleep, and next day they find their completed product (of which they have never breathed a word to any one) neatly written out in Clarke's handwriting in the drawer of his desk, which they have occasion honorably to rifle. When Ernest Fielding confronts him with these misdeeds, Clarke, so far from being abashed, appears "like a gigantic dynamo, charged with the might of ten thousand magnetic storms that shake the earth in its orbit and lash myriads of planets through infinities of space." He justifies himself by explaining:

> I carry the essence of what is cosmic . . . of what is divine. . . . I am Homer . . . Goethe . . . Shakespeare. . . . I am an embodiment of the same force of which Alexander, Cæsar, Confucius, and the Christos were also embodiments.

Of course the theme of the consuming power of greatness, from the time of Semele on, has been eternally interesting; its manifestations, whether maleficent or merely indifferent, are eternally capable of new and significant treatment. The difficulty with Mr. Viereck's treatment lies in his purely melodramatic conception of character, an utter lack of subtlety in dealing with the whole situation, and a distressing congestion of large words. It is the type of theme in which Robert Hichens excelled in the good days before he became a popular writer, and of which Oscar Wilde's "Dorian Grey" is a happy example. But Mr. Viereck's overladen prose is still at the stage where people look "mingled hate and admiration," and where the effort towards blended profundity and beauty is more apparent than convincing.

Paulus und Jesus. Von Prof. D. Adolf Jülicher. New York: Imported by G. E. Stechert & Co. 13 cents.

The time-worn question whether the Apostle Paul handed down the essential content and true spirit of the Galilean gospel, or, on the other hand, seriously misrepresented it and changed the Christian message for the worse, appears in the series of popular handbooks by liberal German divines known as the Religionsgeschichtliche Volksbücher. Two years ago there was published in the series an essay on Paul, by Professor Wrede of Breslau, which was distinguished even in its brilliant company for sharpness of generalization and lucidity of style, and which was recognized at once on all sides as a masterpiece of historical criticism. With full recognition of Paul's sincerity and devotion, his zeal as a missionary and skill as a dialectician, Wrede asserted nevertheless that Paul had supplanted the pure and gentle personal faith of the Nazarene by rabbinic dogma and ecclesiasticism, and that the Christian religion had suffered in his hands a serious and permanent impairment of its finer qualities and principal merits. The total impression upon the reader of Wrede's monograph was not less unfavorable as concerns the character and influence of Paul than that made by a radical pulpiteer who flings his periods at the contrast between the Sermon on the Mount and the Epistle to the Romans. The man of Tarsus was made to figure as the second founder of Christianity, of greater, but less beneficent, influence than the Nazarene himself.

The present essay of Professor Jülicher is confessedly a critique of this unfavorable judgment upon the great Christian Apostle. It is admitted freely that Paul is not Jesus, and that the epistles fall immeasurably below the gospels in the

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quietness and confidence which is the strength of religious faith. The title of the first chapter is "The Cleft Between Paul and Jesus," and here a large portion of what may be termed the theology of Paul is clearly described, with no concealment of the fact that its rabbinic framework and scholastic refinements are far removed from the parables and beatitudes. Yet even here Professor Jülicher finds that the differences are not so much between Paul and Jesus, as between the entire early company of Christians and the Teacher to whom they owed their inspiration. A good case is made for the thesis that much at which offence is taken in Paulinism is but the common heritage of the primitive Church. In the second chapter, on the agreement between Paul and his Master, the apologetic is more vigorous. Professor Jülicher asserts that as regards faith, hope, and love, which are the greatest treasures of religion, the Galilean spirit is handed down unimpaired. The vocabulary is different, as Corinth and Rome were not Capernaum and Bethsaida, but the message is essentially the same. Paul defends the gospel against Jewish aspersions in language with which his rabbinic education had equipped him, but it is the gospel he defends and not the product of his own invention. We hear Paul only from the pulpit, and largely in debate which he did not invite, but which was forced upon him; we hear Paul's Master from the fishing boat, opening the kingdom of heaven to sympathetic disciples. Paul has a right to be judged by his best, by his utterances in moods and surroundings best calculated for expression of the real Christian spirit. It is not fair to judge his Christianity by his temper in theological argument, by his conduct in the presence of the *rabies theologorum*. The author of Romans iii. and ix., the constructor of the doctrine of election, wrote also of the love without which all speech is sounding brass and a tinkling cymbal. Here is perhaps the source of difference between Professor Wrede and Professor Jülicher. The former has kept chiefly in mind the theological sections of the epistles; the latter has thought chiefly of the more human utterances. Of course both must be taken together in a complete estimate of the man, and this old-time debate illustrates the difficulty of constructing a satisfactory picture of a personality so complex as that of Paul from a few casual letters. It can scarcely be denied that it was a one-sided view of Paul which Professor Wrede presented, and that the Volksbücher series now represents more fairly and completely the consensus of judgment among historians, since Professor Jülicher has spoken for Paul the man with as much enthusiasm, learning, and freedom from dogmatic prejudice as his predecessor had spoken for Paul the rabbinic apologete.

The explanation of the differences between Jesus and Paul is in large part in the situations they severally confronted. Their problems, their tasks, and the length of their activity, were not at all the same. The founder of Christianity was a sower of seed, but the garden was left for others to till. In his eloquent conclusion Professor Jülicher describes Paul erecting a wall about the garden, which the hate of enemies threatened utterly to destroy. The bodies of the first enthusiasts were a useless defence, but the rude stones hurried to the ramparts by the man of Tarsus held back the forces of hate, and the garden is kept in its fairness to this day. Some take offence at the rude protecting stones, and in their ruin they are certainly unlovely, but the teacher of Galilee had at heart no more true and kindly friend than the Christian rabbi who preserved the faith with means we now call ugly. He never thought to put his theology in the place of the gospel, but as a citadel about it. Christianity is indebted to him for much, but its existence it owes not to him, but to his greater Master.

Such is the apology for Paul made by the Marburg teacher. Some will think the Apostle needs no defence, others will declare the apology insufficient. But it certainly is able and interesting, and a contribution to the history of the early Christian church of no small merit and importance.

The Automobilist Abroad. By Francis Miltoun; illustrated by Blanche McManus. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $3.00 net.

Automobile touring in Europe is not new, as time is reckoned in the twentieth century, but leisurely motor-touring is still somewhat of a novelty. A few motorists, and among them Mr. Miltoun, have grasped the fact that the real charm of the automobile lies not in racing from Paris to Berlin or "scorching" from Paris to Rome, but in discovering the remote and the inaccessible. The motor-car can enter where the train cannot; this is his true merit and virtue (for the French Academy has pronounced the automobile to be masculine). Mr. Miltoun has the distinction of looking upon his machine as a means, and not an end, and his book has the distinction of being one of the first satisfactory volumes of travel written by an automobilist.

"The Automobilist Abroad" is divided into two sections: the practical and the picturesque. The first five chapters give excellent accounts of the past history and present condition of roads, information about hotels, talk concerning travel, suggestions of routes, descriptions of quaint milestones and road-signs, regulations for speed, and lists of obstructions. Concerning the difficulties of the road, Mr. Miltoun, not without a touch of humor, says:

In La Beauce the geese and ducks are prudent, in the Nivernais the oxen are placid, and in Provence the donkeys are philosophical; but in Brittany the horses and mules and their drivers take fright immediately they suspect the coming of an automobile.

Of practical interest, and of value to all European motor-tourists, are the appendices on custom dues, lists of road books and maps, regulations of motor-car travel, particulars of road races, and much useful information in tabular form.

But the real attraction of the book lies in the lightly-drawn sketches of tours in France, Britain, Flanders, and along the Rhine. France is the paradise of auto-cars and auto-boats; and if followed along the lines of the unconventional no more fascinating field can be found. Mr. Miltoun knows his France, and whether it is in Languedoc and Old Provence, in The Pyrenees, by Rhône and Saône, or by Seine and Oise, we are filled with the desire to follow in his steps—if we have not already been before him—to have an intimate view of the land of Mistral, of Dupré and Daubigny, of Jehan de Meung, to see Martigues, "La Venise de Provence," the artists' sketching ground, to camp out with Père Chabas and eat his *bouillabaisse*, his *langouste*, and his *omelettes au rhum;* to take a run through the Valois, the country of Dumas; to cruise on the Seine in that pert *canot-automobile* the "Ça et Là." "The motor-boat is highly developed in France," writes Mr. Miltoun, "from the simple fact that you can tour on it. You can go all over France by a magnificent system of inland waterways; from the Seine to the Marne; from the Oise to the Sambre—and so to Antwerp and Ghent; from the Loire to the Rhône; and even from the Marne to the Rhine; and from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic."

Britain's roads, Britain's police, and Britain's hotels are not favorable to motoring. But the "Automobilist" braved these inconveniences for a run on the famous Bath Road, a tour on the south coast and the Isle of Wight, and a five days' trip over the classic itinerary from "Land's End to John o' Groat's," 888 miles of straight road over eight ranges of mountains, through the heart of the Scottish Highlands, and skirting along the surging waves of the North Sea. Of greater charm was the author's rather too rapid tour in Belgium, Holland, and by the Rhine. The level, straight, brick-paved roads of Holland are as good for the automobilist as the granite-block and cobble-stone roads of Belgium are bad. And beautiful, dainty Holland repays the tourist with her lovely sunken gardens, her myriad windmills, her Paul Potter cattle, her color, costumes, and canals, her sunsets and *sabots*, her dykes and Delftware.

Mr. Miltoun has an eye for the quaint and the characteristic, his style is piquant; he is not an art-critic, but history is at his tongue's end, literature is his ready ally, and he has a prodigious memory. He has the knack, in a few dashing lines, of making you see the place, and he gives an original twist to his words. The volume is liberally illustrated with good maps, numerous photographs, which are good for "kodaks," but tantalizingly small, and a number of wash drawings colored and otherwise.

Det Nittende Aarhundredes Kulturkamp; Norge. By Hjalmal Christensen. Christiania: H. Aschehong & Co.

In his Cultural History of Norway in the Nineteenth Century Dr. Christensen presents a clear and scholarly picture of the intellectual and material progress of Norway, since the regaining of independence in 1814. To the student of educational or social and political movements there can be no more interesting and instructive chapter. Although the little kingdom has only recently entered upon an era of material prosperity, no careful observer can have failed to notice that in the last fifty years, it has, in the purely intellectual domain, taken an active part in general

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European movements. As is well known, Norway was for four centuries associated with Denmark in a union in which she had become financially impoverished, apparently sapped of all intellectual life and politically reduced to the virtual position of a dependency. Then in the beginning of the last century came a reawakening of the spirit which had been dormant during a "night of four hundred years"; and Norway united with Sweden on terms of equality. Thereupon followed a period of intellectual development characterized by striking achievements. In less than a hundred years this little country has produced in politics such men as Schweigaard, Stang, Sverdrup, and Mikkelson; in law, a Bernhard Getz; in science Abel, Oersted, and Sophus Lie; in historical and linguistic research, Keyser, Munch, Sars, Gustav Storm, Aasen, Sophus Bugge (who died last August), and Joh Storm; in music, a Sinding, a Kjerulf, and a Grieg; and in literature a score of great writers headed by Henrik Ibsen and Björnstjerne Björnson. And this progress, of which such names are, so to speak, the milestones, reached a kind of climax in 1905 in the severing of the political ties which had bound Norway and Sweden for ninety-one years.

The author's presentation has been made on the basis of literature in the broad sense, writings on science, politics, and law, as well as belles-lettres. The introductory chapter, "What Is Culture?" is followed by an analysis of the Norwegian character, and the relation of the Norwegian peasant and Norwegian society to the cultural movements. The bulk of the volume, pages 52-371, is devoted to a discussion of the "leaders of culture" (*Kulturförere*). The author analyzes with fine critical insight the work of such men as the national propagandist Wergeland and the conservative Welhaven, the former of whom he characterized as the pathfinder and champion of the broader humanitarianism. Then follows a chapter on the Norwegian press. The book closes with three short chapters on Pseudo-Culture (*Halvdannelse*), Enemies of Culture, and The Right of Property and Personal Liberty in Norway. The author argues that Vinje is the creator of the modern Norwegian sentence structure; and that Georg Brandès has been a powerful uplifting factor. He also maintains that, while the character of the Swedish people has been modified by mixture with Finns and by the outlook upon and association with the Slavic East, and while that of the Danes has experienced a similar influence from German civilization, that of Norway forms a composite of those mental traits which distinguish the English on the one hand and the Scotch on the other.

The Future of Japan. By W. Petrie Watson. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.

From his first arrival in Japan, Mr. Watson has been anxious about her future, for his first book dealt with "aspects and destinies," and this second volume has for its burden implicit prophecy. Now, in the world of science, prediction is the final crown, set upon mastery of all details of knowledge: induction of facts reveals law. In the realm of spirit, profound insight of past and present reality is necessary. Has Mr. Watson the qualifications of astronomer, or seer?

It is but fair to the author to show first his work, before appraisal or final judgment. His well-arranged and indexed volume, of nearly 400 pages, treats in part i, "Conditions of the Times." He tells us much that is accurate, valuable, and thoroughly sane about leaders and people, the social order, political status, administrative conditions, education and character, superstitions, the moral systems of the past and the present "moral chaos." Part ii. deals with "The Future and Its Problems." He shows tendencies, modern philosophical conditions, the Constitution and its difficulties; and various other subjects, on which we need light, he treats both interestingly and suggestively. The final question he asks is this:

> Have we, in the sudden and formidable forthcoming of Japan, the appearance of a new idea, of a new interpretation, representing a new beginning of history, the opening of a new adventure of humanity?

To this question he gives a negative answer. Whatever Japan hopes or proposes, "she is too like the West to be to Europe a new idea; she is too like the East to be a new hope."

Mr. Watson argues that there can be no fresh "beginning" of history which has not been born from a new religion, or accompanied its propagation. Japan, so far from offering humanity a new religion, proposes to carry on history without one. Japan has no "beginning" of history, because there is in her mind no concept or interpretation of man's relation to the universal. Therefore, the strength and potency of the world remain with Europe, which holds "a concept and image of the universal that guarantees the essential permanence of the European idea against every particular type and every peculiar originality." In a word, Europe possesses the idea of concrete Personality, while Asia, including the Japanese genius, has no universal relationship or reference and no universal motive. In his chapters on Japan and Christianity, progress and individualism, and the Christ-personality, the author further argues that we need not expect from Japan any fresh surprises (such as Renan has hinted at), and this also is the burden of his seventeen-page Introduction on Japan and Europe. The difference between the mind of Japan and that of Europe is, in his view, the absence or the presence of a "dogmatic sense." He would not only say that the Japanese are destitute of the mental trait which has made Europe, but he asserts that she intends to pursue her career without religion, or "the great divine fact at the heart of that European civilization in which she [Japan] seeks completely to habit herself." In Mr. Watson's eyes Japan has risen to a place among the leading states by challenging every precedent, political, social, religious, in the moral fabric of Western civilization. The apparition of this child of the world's old age seems to shrivel up that which we have deemed essential and fundamental to the merely incidental.

Those who love zealous discussion of a vital and increasingly interesting theme, will find in this volume both enjoyment and profit. Those who rigidly require high qualifications for prophecy from the point of view either of America or of critical scholarship, will be disappointed. Saturated with Anglicism and knowing European development apparently only in the traditional way, the author has certainly not the spirit or the outlook of the cis-Atlantic man, who has discarded so much of what is mediæval, feudal, and inherited from political ecclesiasticism, to which Europe still clings. Indeed, the general cast of thought, despite the author's interviews with Tokio statesmen, and his familiarity with review articles and measurably even with science, seems curiously mediæval. Another serious defect, which shortens the author's base line and discredits most of his measurements of the yet unseen, is that his outlook, so far as regards the origins or the real history of the islanders, is not founded on science. The Japanese are not, in the strict sense, an Oriental people, nor can they be put in the same category with the old nations of China or India. A mixed race, in which the Aryan blend is strikingly large, as archæology, linguistics, and a critical reading of their history shows beyond cavil, they are not old, for no such thing as a Japanese nation, that is, a body of fairly homogeneous people, having the same social system, religion, and government, existed until the twelfth century. Furthermore, the Japanese are not a nation in the sense that the English and French, for example, are. For centuries, a minority of armed gentry, besides terrorizing a great body of conquered, of semi-serfs, or of people only partially privileged, made "public opinion" and government. Within fifty years we have seen an oligarchy surrounding a semi-divine emperor, of whom and with whom they make mystery play, and, under the show of a constitution, compel the obedience of millions in war and peace.

Yet none the less is it true—and the apparent contradictions are only in healthy growth—that there are vast potential changes almost in sight. Mr. Watson, to be a true prophet, ought not only to have become familiar with the results of research and the facts of actual history, but he ought to have known far more than his pages would lead us to suppose he does know about the actual state of Christianity in Japan and the real mind of the leaders of the nation. The popular agglomerate of dogmatic Christianity, with all the accretions from Greek philosophy masquerading under the name of Christian theology and from Roman pragmatism and church imperialism, traditionally accepted among us, is not indeed making much progress in Japan, and organized Christianity in statistical expression shows no notable progress. But as a leavening spiritual force, the moral influence and teaching of Jesus is steadily remaking the nation. The dogmas that are silently sinking below the horizon in Europe and America have little relish to the Japanese taste. But to intimate that Japan intends to get along without a religion superior to any that she has thus far tried, is to misread the signs of the times. Furthermore, our English prophet does not seem to see, certainly not to measure in true proportions, the steadily rising Nation of Japan, before which her own fairy-tale theories of the Universe, and of the Imperial Family, and of the Throne, as well as half her world of superstition and fond belief, is to pass away.

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Peers or People? The House of Lords Weighed in the Balance and Found Wanting: An Appeal to History. By William T. Stead. Pp. viii, 264. New York: A Wessels Co. $1 net.

Mr. Stead's indictment of the House of Lords was published when there was some expectation that a great popular agitation would follow the wrecking of the Education bill of 1906 by the Conservative majority in the upper house that takes its instructions through the Marquis of Lansdowne from Mr. Balfour, the leader of the minority in the House of Commons. That expectation was not realized. The movement failed to take hold with the Liberals, Radicals, and Labor men, because Free Churchmen regarded the Education bill as falling so far short of the measure necessary to set up a really national system of education—a system from which all churches should be excluded—as not to be worth a great constitutional struggle. The movement failed for another reason. Just as soon as the Campbell-Bannerman government was well established it began to pay campaign indebtedness by creating peerages for men of newly acquired wealth; for men who had absolutely no claim to be peers except that they had bestowed some of their money on the party treasury or had expended it in maintaining party newspapers. Any assault on the Lords would have been hampered by these recent creations of peers.

But the unconcealed partisan activity in the Parliamentary session of 1907 of the peers who take their commands from the leader of the minority in the Commons makes it possible that a conflict with the Lords may occur within the lifetime of the Parliament that was elected in 1906. In case of such a conflict Mr. Stead's statement of the case against the peers will have an outstanding place in the literature of the propaganda for this reform. Mr. Stead goes no farther back than 1832; for before the Grey administration took up the long overdue work of reforming the representation there had been no struggle between the Commons and the Lords which aroused popular interest. Indeed, prior to 1832 the Lords directly or indirectly controlled elections of some three-fifths of the members of the House of Commons. From 1832 onward, however, Mr. Stead gives a full narrative, adequately supported by authorities, of the action of the Lords on Parliamentary reform, land legislation, labor and factory legislation, religious equality, education, and democratic municipal government. Their opposition to these movements has been actuated by privileged interest. Even of more practical value are Mr. Stead's statements of the small part in the work of government and administration which is now within the province of the House of Lords; of the small value that can be attached to the House as now constituted, as a reviewing chamber; and of the utter neglect by three-fifths of the peers of their Parliamentary duties except when measures in which they are interested either as landlords or as Tory partisans of the Bourbon type are before Parliament.

Here and there in the 250 pages Mr. Stead's characteristic methods of handling a subject manifest themselves. But there is far less of Mr. Stead than is usual in his political or social monographs; and were all of Mr. Stead discarded, the authorities he has drawn upon—covering a wide range and extending over the whole of the period—are brought together with much skill and care; and these alone would greatly help to an understanding of the problem.

Science.

Altitude, Azimuth, and Geographical Position. By G. W. Littlehales. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

The history of navigation, if ever written *in extenso*, from the Phœnicians to Bowditch, will show a variety of stages, each compact in itself and definitely marked. As practised to-day, on merchantman, ocean liner, and man-of-war, it is one of the most useful of the exact sciences, tending directly to reduction of the cost of a vast variety of commodities essential to human existence and comfort, and the safety of uncounted millions' worth of the products of man's intelligence and industry.

One of the milestones in this history was passed when, some seventy years ago, an American, Capt. Thomas Sumner, first discovered the principle underlying a precise and easy method of deriving a ship's longitude at sea, now taught every tyro in navigation, and employed every day by navigating officers the world over—known as Sumner's method. It is probably the greatest practical contribution of the nineteenth century to the progress of navigation, and is so important that much interest attaches to Capt. Sumner's account of his discovery in his own words, now quite forgotten:

> At about 10 A. M. [December 18, 1837] an altitude of the sun was observed, and chronometer time noted; but, having run so far without any observation, it was evident that the latitude by dead reckoning was liable to error and could not be entirely relied upon. However, the longitude by chronometer was determined, using the uncertain D. R. latitude, and the ship's position fixed in accordance. A second latitude was then assumed, 10′ to the north of the last, and working with this latitude a second position of the ship was obtained; and again a third position by means of a third latitude still 10′ farther north. On pricking off these three positions on the chart it was discovered that the three points were all disposed in a straight line lying east-northeast and west-southwest, and that when this line was produced in the first-named direction, it also passed through Smalls light. The conclusion arrived at was *that the observed altitude must have happened at all three points, at the Smalls light and at the ship, at the same instant of time.* The deduction followed that, though the absolute position of the ship was doubtful, yet the true bearing of Smalls light was certain, provided the chronometer was correct. The ship was therefore kept on her course, east-northeast, and in less than an hour Smalls light was made, bearing east by north one-half north, and close aboard. The latitude by D. R. turned out to be 8′ in error.

It has often been remarked that Sumner's elegant method would be most readily adaptable, if his circles of position, as given by the two observations of altitudes, could only be transferred to a perfect sphere on shipboard, of such size that the critical intersection points would give the vessel's position on a scale sufficiently large for the accuracy required. But a sphere of eight to ten feet diameter—what ship would have quarters for such a bit of apparatus? It would only prove a white elephant, though very useful if at hand to pilot one through the jungle of an archipelago.

But this happy thought has struck Mr. Littlehales—and quite possibly many others before him, though he is the first to put it into serviceable form—why not reduce a manageable sphere to simple projection on a series of lithograph plates, and bind them up in a book? This is what he has done with all the care and system essential to complete adaptability of his scheme to the needs, not only of navigators, but of practical astronomers and surveyors. In the stress of storm at sea, with the sun beclouded for days, and one's faith in dead reckoning eclipsed, what could be more gratifying than instant application of one simple rule to the chance observation, once it does come, and one's longitude found from trusty graphic plates without the intermediary of the usual and rather protracted, not to say often erroneous, logarithmic computation? Littlehales's method, the most significant improvement in the theory and practice of navigation since Bowditch and Sumner, is based on a twelve-foot globe, embodying a stereographic projection of the celestial sphere on the meridian plane of the point of observation. As this would be too extended for presentation in one continuous sheet, the four quadrants are each divided into ninety-two sections, overlapping, and all conveniently indexed; thus providing even greater facility in practical work than the continuous sheet itself would do. To be sure, the graphic tables themselves are not small, nearly fifteen inches by twenty-four; but they are by no means unmanageable in the chart-room. Only two openings of the book, half the usual calculation time saved, no trigonometry or logarithms requisite, and but a single brief rule, simple in operation, quick of application, and infallible as to result—this is what every ship's master has been *on the lookout for, ever since* his first command. An easy prediction is that every deep sea yachtsman and navigating officer will quickly discard the antiquated logarithmic rule, once he gets acquainted with the direct, unerring and time saving Littlehales method. And besides this, astronomer, as well as geographist and surveyor, will find these graphic charts most excellent in their adaptability to every sort of conditions wherein spheric problems are involved, whether on sea or land, wherever the sun, or only a single star, is visible.

"Laboratory Exercises in General Zoology," by Glenn W. Herrick (American Book Company), is a brief manual of directions for simple laboratory work on various common forms of life. The author has had the courage to begin with microscopic work and to proceed systematically from amœba and sponge to the English sparrow and the cotton-tail rabbit. This is certainly logical; and if the beginner does not break his microscope lens, it is an admirable method. First impressions are of the highest importance, and if the scheme of classification can be thus presented in order from the lowest to the

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highest, there is no better way imaginable. Every second leaf in the book is left blank for written notes of the pupil. Though these abortive thoughts and theories usually fail to fulfil the youthful student's hope of revolutionizing science; yet the very proving of their fallacy impresses the real truths on his mind. The author has succeeded in his effort to prese clear and explicit directions for laboratory observation and dissection. Suggestions for collecting and preserving specimens and a bibliography are given in an appendix.

A little pamphlet, "Beobachtungen über den Aussatz im Heiligen Lande," has been published by Dr. Einsler, who has for nearly two decades been head physician of the Jesus Hilfe Hospital for Leprosy in Jerusalem, under the management of the Moravian Brethren. This booklet has been issued by the mission publication house of the Moravians in Herrnhut, Saxony. Dr. Einsler takes issue with the specialists who, at the international leprosy congress in Berlin, in 1897, insisted that this disease is contagious, but not hereditary. The experience of the management of this hospital in the forty years of its existence has not, Dr. Einsler declares, shown a single instance of leprosy as the result of contagion, although opportunities existed in abundance. He also says that among the inhabitants of Jerusalem he has in all these years never seen a single instance of such contagion. His belief in the inheritance of leprosy, Dr. Einsler bases on the fact that in many families it has been transmitted for several generations. He, therefore, particularly deplores the fact that at the three Turkish stations for the isolation of leprosy patients, at Ramleh, Nablus, and Jerusalem, the ~~~nment permits the marriage of these ~~ortunates, with the result of brood~ of leprous children. The authorities of the Jesus Hilfe Hospital have repeatedly petitioned the government to forbid the marriage of lepers, but, so far, without success. Dr. Einsler's observations have led him to the conclusion that there are two kinds of leprosy in Palestine, namely, the "knotty" (*knötchen*, or *knotenform*), and the nervous form. The former shows itself chiefly in external growths on the face; hands, arms; or legs; the latter begins usually with the destruction of the more deeply seated nerves; followed by severe rheumatic pains. According to the latest report, this Moravian asylum had in its care fifty-four lepers. The great majority, namely, forty-one, were Mohammedans.

Sven Hedin is not the only European savant who has been exploring the highlands of Tibet. In "Das Rätsel des Matschu" (Berlin: Mittler und Sohn) the German traveller, W. Filchner, gives a richly illustrated report of his expedition into this land between June 14 and November 8, 1904. The expedition was aided financially and scientifically by the Grosser Generalstab and the Topographische Anstalt of Prussia. This is really the third book on the researches of Filchner in these regions, the first being his "Ritt über den Pamir," and the second a good-sized monograph on the great Buddhistic cloister colony at Kumbum, in northeastern Tibet. The present volume is a report of progress, amid dangers and disappointments, Chinese soldiers and servants, in the region east of the upper Hoang-ho, from 5,000 to 6,000 metres above the level of the sea. The scientific gains to the present volume are chiefly geographical, but the political and social condition of the tribes with whom Filchner came into contact are also instructively portrayed. The full scientific reports, however, of the expedition are to be published in a separate volume, the time of whose appearance has not yet been announced.

Prof. L. F. Vernon Harcourt, a distinguished civil engineer, died in England on September 21. In 1882 he was appointed professor of civil engineering at University College, London; and he served as British member of the Suez Canal Work Consultative Commission. He was the author of a number of works, including "Rivers and Canals," 1882; "Harbors and Docks," 1885; "Achievements in Engineering," 1891; and "Civil Engineering as Applied to Construction," 1902.

Drama and Music.

Le Théâtre au Collège du Moyen Age à nos Jours. Le Cercle Français de l'Université Harvard. Par L. V. Gofflot. Pp. xv., 323. Paris: Librairie Honoré Champion.

The Harvard undergraduate who learns a part for the annual performance of the Cercle Français is not often aware that he is thereby continuing an ancient and impor~ historic tradition, and, likewise, contributing his share to the growth of French influence in the United States. These matters will be clearer to him if he turns the pages of M. Gofflot's entertaining work on the academic drama. The book is dedicated to James Hazen Hyde, whose interest in strengthening the intellectual alliance between our country and France is deeply appreciated by both the author and Jules Claretie, who writes the preface.

The author takes us back to the times of Abélard—he might have begun with Ausonius and the later Roman empire both West and East—and traces the influence of academic productions on the growth of the drama. He restricts his treatment to French plays, mentioning those of England incidentally, and those of Germany not at all. His statement that the theatre of the Renaissance and of the Middle Ages "prit naissance et se développa dans les collèges" neglects, for the moment, the liturgical origins of the mediæval mysteries and their part in the development of the later drama; but he does not otherwise overestimate the importance of the school play. The members of the Pleiade owed their inspiration to a university professor, Jean Dorat, of the Collège de France, an institution which upheld the ideals of humanism against the scholastic programme of the Sorbonne. Rabelais and Montaigne thought well of school performances and of the part they had taken in them. Even the Calvinists did not altogether neglect the drama, while the Jesuits, to whom M. Gofflot devotes the longest and most valuable section of his book, cultivated the art systematically. The Jesuits could criticise the ancient stage with proper vituperation; a German authority calls them zealots and obscurantists on the subject. But this is only half the story, as the present pages show; the Jesuits banished love and alluring vice from their plays—which, therefore, have no lineal connection with the modern French novel—but the principles of the drama and its value they understood well and inculcated in their pupils for nearly two centuries. Corneille, Molière, and Voltaire owed their early dramatic training to the Jesuits; Le Sage and Descartes were also their pupils. The performances of their school plays were notable social affairs, involving large outlays for scenery and costumes and for banquets in honor of the visitors. We read among other anecdotes of a niece of the Archbishop of Paris, a lively Mlle. de Luc, who witnessed one of the spectacles from the window of an adjoining house and amused herself by throwing several pounds of toilet-powder on an assemblage of monks below her; the various garbs of Capuchins, Carmelites, and Barnabites presented a uniform appearance when the dust cleared. Nor were the convents far behind in patronizing both the drama and, later on, the ballet, a fact which the author promptly connects with developments at Radcliffe and Smith. The convent of the Dames de Saint Louis at Saint Cyr was indirectly responsible for Racine's "Esther" and "Athalie," which Mme. de Maintenon had requested for the school. With the expulsion of the order of the Jesuits in 1762 and the approach of the Revolution, the drama gave place to débates, which also form an important part of modern college life. School plays appear sporadically in the nineteenth century; an important centre is Orléans, a stronghold of humanism in the Middle Ages as well, where various Greek dramas were presented from 1855 to 1869.

M. Gofflot devote~ his final chapter to theatrical performances in American colleges, especially at Harvard. There the practice was started, with no reference to the ancient tradition, by the Hasty Pudding Club in 1844. An important precursor of the French plays was the performance of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" in 1881, followed by that of the "Phormio" in 1894 and of the "Agamemnon" in 1906. What with annual German and Elizabethan plays, to say nothing of club performances, Puritan Harvard in paying almost as much attention to the theatre as did the Jesuits of old. Perhaps some day a professor of rhetoric may be obliged, as in those times, to write a tragedy in verse every year. Perhaps too, the actors may accomplish their training, as then, "sans négliger aucune des leçons ordinaires."

The book includes a satisfactory, if not altogether complete, bibliography, and a useful list of school plays in France and at Harvard. There should certainly be some account of the first drama devoted to the fate of Queen Mary, the "Stuarta Tragoedia;" by Adrien de Roulers, performed at Douai in 1593.

A selected list of plays for amateurs has been compiled by Elizabeth A. McFadden and Lilian E. Davis, with an introduction by Ludella L. Peck, professor of elocution, Smith College. This bibliography consists of some three hundred and fifty titles. It is divided into a general list, a list for children, and a list of Christmas plays. It

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is further supplemented by appendices giving some twenty-eight plays for outdoor presentation, and a smaller number of old English plays which are possible for amateurs. The bibliography will be published if sufficient subscribers are procured.

Octave Feuillet's "Le Village," a little play suggesting provincial pictures, is edited for Henry Holt & Co. by Dr. F. J. A. Davidson, who supplies a vocabulary.

Henry Arthur Jones's latest play, "The Evangelist," produced in the Knickerbocker Theatre on Monday evening, is notable for its outspoken treatment of social and religious problems. It does not offer much help toward a practical solution of them, but a play informed by moral purpose is welcome as a rarity. The theme of it is the impotency of the various churches, with their conflicting creeds and innumerable jealousies, to grapple with worldly and spiritual difficulties which would disappear before the spirit of the pure gospel. As might be expected, the piece is largely a bit of special pleading, in which sentiment too often becomes the substitute of fact. The hero, with his religious exaltation, his self-denial, and his persistent optimism, conquers the riotous spirit of strikers, restores the outcast to self-respect, brings an erring wife to repentance, is a help to all who have any dealings with him, and is finally sent to prison through a conspiracy of clergymen, opposed to his methods, who find that he has committed a technical offence against the law by the employment of living pictures in his revival meetings. Mr. Jones, being an enthusiast, is not entirely ingenuous in the conduct of his case. His clergymen are touched with caricature and he ignores the fact that expert opinion is doubtful, to say the least, concerning the value of revival methods. Nevertheless, his position that the spirit of religion is more than the letter, if somewhat trite, is impregnable; and some of his satire on current hypocrisies is as trenchant as it is just. The moral of it all seems to be that religion is a necessity for the poorer classes and most women, although cultivated souls may contrive to get along without it. As drama, the piece is weaker than Mr. Jones's best work. The credibility of the action is sometimes strained, almost to the breaking point, to fulfil the requirement of the moral argument; but there are some strong individual scenes and that prevailing alertness to theatrical effect in which Mr. Jones is seldom found wanting. The acting was capital, and the piece is likely to run, although it will offend almost as many as it pleases.

Laurence Housman, whose "Prunella" was highly praised by some of the best London critics, is at work upon a new three-act play. It is fantastic in character and Eastern in subject. Like "Prunella," it is an attempt to convey in whimsical allegory a serious criticism of life. The music, which will play an important part in the dramatic development, will be composed by Joseph Moorat.

At the recent Trade Union Congress in Bath, England, the stage union was represented by a delegation, whose special grievance was that actors suffered more from an abuse of the overtime system than almost anybody else. Their spokesman, Frank Gerald, said:

> No delegates but myself and my colleagues, I undertake to say, represent men who work for nothing, but the actor has that experience in the shape of matinées and rehearsals. Imagine rehearsing a new play for six weeks and getting no pay, and then the play being a failure, and only running one week. That really means seven weeks' work and no pay. Is that right? Would any one here do it? I say no. Some may call our work play, but I would put it the other way about, and say our play is work, and should be regarded so. The actor has awakened to the fact that he is no more nor less than a worker and a laborer, and one who is worthy of his hire. We are workers; we are here as workers; and we recognize the fact that by taking up our share of the work in this great labor movement is the only way to work out our salvation.

No doubt there is sometimes much hardship in unrequited rehearsals, but after all the actor who has wasted his efforts on a play that proves a failure is no worse off than any other artist who has put labor and pains into a work—book or painting or sculpture—which nobody will buy. And then it is to be remembered that the reward of a successful actor is often out of all proportion to his actual deserts.

St. Petersburg will soon have three opera houses. The Imperial Opera long ago ceased to have room for all who wanted seats. A few years ago, Prince Zeretelli opened a second opera house, but this, too, was so remarkably successful that it no longer accommodates all who are eager to hear operatic music—especially those whose means are limited. Consequently, arrangements are being made for a People's Opera House, which will hold 4,000 spectators, who will pay popular prices. Several Russian capitalists have provided the funds, and a number of young artists will coöperate in an attempt to produce the masterworks in a worthy manner. The repertory is to include two operas that will be new to St. Petersburg—Wagner's "Flying Dutchman" and Goldmark's "Queen of Sheba."

Art.

The Brasses of England. By Herbert W. Macklin, President of the Monumental Brass Society; with 85 illustrations. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50 net.

A brass means, as the term is employed by Mr. Macklin, a "plate which is engraved with inscription, figure, coat-of-arms, religious symbol, or the like, and which is also a memorial or part of a memorial to the dead." The art of engraving these memorials is no longer practised. It reached its apogee in England about 1400, when the fashion prevailed among the comfortable classes of thus perpetuating their lineaments and characteristic dress, depicted as accurately as the standards of draughtsmanship of the time would permit. The art died lingeringly in the eighteenth century. In England it had technical peculiarities which distinguished it from the brass engraving of the continental parts of northern Europe, where rectangular plates, covered with engraving after the manner of a picture, constituted the prevailing mode. Then, too, the British brasses are historically interesting. Sometimes they are works of considerable beauty; almost always they convey valuable information as to the costume and armor of the period. Concerning the seriousness with which they were projected much documentary evidence has been discovered—as in a will quoted by Mr. Macklin giving directions to make "a very faire decent and well p'portioned picture or portraiture of a gentleman representing ye said Thomas Fermor wth furniture and ornaments in armour, and about his necke a double cheyne of gold wth creste and helmette under his head and dagger by his side and a lion at his feet."

The metal was not strictly brass at all, but a tough alloy consisting of 60 parts copper, 30 of zinc, and 10 of lead and tin. It is, in fact, the "latoun" frequently mentioned in Chaucer—as of the "gentil pardoner" in the Prologue: "He hadde a crosse of latoun ful of stones." The alloy was manufactured on the continent in rectangular sheets known as Cullen plates, a name derived from the city of Cologne. Color frequently entered into the monuments through the use of enamels of the kind developed by the potters of Limoges. Broad smooth surfaces of brass would not hold the enamel, but color could be used solidly in borders, and often larger extents of the metal were cut away, leaving a slightly lowered bed, cross hatched, to which the color would adhere.

As is the case with many of the mediæval arts and crafts, comparatively little is known about the lives of the artists. Mr. Macklin shows, however, that there were undoubtedly schools of engravers in provincial centres and that it is often reasonable to conjecture that a number of very similar brasses were from the same hand. Not until the reign of Charles I., when the art was already moribund, was a brass ever signed.

Of these memorials, according to Mr. Macklin's estimate, not fewer than 150,000 were laid from first to last in British churches. Many of them were destroyed when English places of worship were ravaged under Henry VIII. Many more were sacrificed to the iconoclastic zeal of the Commonwealth's soldiery, "Cromwellii flagitiosus grex," in the phrase of Evelyn, who in 1654 wrote of Lincoln Cathedral: "The soldiers had lately knocked off most of the brasses from the gravestones; they went in with axes and hammers and shut themselves in till they had rent and torn off some barge loads of metal." A final spoliation took place, oddly enough, during the Gothic revival in the nineteenth century, when zealots not infrequently removed the brasses from the stones in which they had originally been set, and in which alone they had meaning, and transferred them to museums and private collections. Despite many losses of important works, enough, however, remain to give abundant scope to the activities of the Monumental Brass Society. More than 700, for example, have been catalogued in Kent, and about 1,000 in Norfolk. They are to be found usually in out-of-the-way country churches that escaped the Protestant fury.

A carefully summarized statement of the results of antiquarian research in this field appears in Mr. Macklin's book. The treatment is largely literary and historical. The sidelights thrown on the development of English Gothic, on the history of costume and heraldry, and, generally, on the life of the centuries in which the art flour-

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ished, are searching and entertaining. The information imparted as to conditions in the metal working crafts of the middle ages, and as to technical processes, is scantier; because, obviously, there is less information to impart. Yet the entire book is certain to interest students of the literature and art of the centuries in which monumental brasses were produced.

"Portraits and Portrait Painting," by Estelle M. Hurll, will be issued at once by L. C. Page & Co.

The sixth annual exhibition of the Pennsylvania Society of Miniature Painters will be held at the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, Philadelphia, October 26 to November 17. The juries of selection are made up as follows: In New York: Alice Beckington, Alice Rushmore, Emily Drayton Taylor, and Irving R. Wiles; in Philadelphia: William M. Chase, Herman Deigendesch, Elizabeth Shippen Green, and Amy Otis. The hanging committee consists of A. Margaretta Archambault, Sarah Yocum McFadden, and Amy Otis.

William Shaw Tiffany, the painter, died on September 28, in this city. He was born in Baltimore in 1825, the son of O. C. Tiffany, a pioneer merchant of the Southwest. After graduation from Harvard in 1845, he studied art in Europe. Mr. Tiffany's paintings were generally of religious subjects or illustrations of legendary poetry. Some of them were taken by the Peabody Institute in Baltimore. At the time of his death he was laboring on what he had termed his life work, a series of pencil illustrations for Milton's "Ode on the Nativity."

The death is announced of Dr. Adolf Seyboth, director of the Hohenlohe Museum of Strassburg. Born in 1848, he became an authority on the history of Strassburg. Among his writings are "Costumes Strassbourgeois," "Das alte Strassbourg," and "Strassbourg historique et pittoresque."

Finance.

A STEP TOWARDS CURRENCY REFORM.

The action of the American Bankers' Association at Atlantic City last week, in regard to the currency, was of real significance in the movement to give greater flexibility to our system. The report made by the special commission appointed a year ago, with A. B. Hepburn at its head, was approved, and the commission itself was authorized to keep up the fight for legislation and to add to its numbers. This step was taken after a debate in which the opponents of change put forward their strongest advocates. It was taken, too, in the absence of any organized effort to rally the friends of the special commission, more than half of whose members were unable to be present.

This is the first official endorsement by the bankers of the country, in recent years, of the principle of a credit currency. Two or three years ago, such a declaration from a national convention of bankers could not have been obtained. Events have moved rapidly, however, since call money went to 125 per cent. in 1905. Probably money rates would have gone as high this year if liquidation had not been so severe on the New York Stock Exchange. But the prolonged scarcity of capital for permanent investment has had an effect more potent than the arguments of the most enthusiastic currency reformer. In the meantime, the ground for action in the right direction had been prepared by the long campaign of the advocates of credit currency, until a year ago they saw their doctrines approved by so conservative a body as the New York Chamber of Commerce and accepted by the special commission of the Bankers' Association.

The plan adopted at Atlantic City is far from radical. It authorizes national banks to issue notes to an amount not exceeding 25 per cent. of their capital. These notes are not to be specifically secured by deposits of bonds at Washington, but are to be generally secured by the great mass of assets in the custody of the bank. This maximum of 25 per cent. of capital is limited by several other provisions—that the new notes issued by any bank shall not be in excess of 40 per cent. of its bonds to secure the old type of circulation; that such issues shall be taxed at the rate of 2½ per cent., and part of them 5 per cent., and that against such notes reserves of lawful money shall be held in the same proportions as are required by existing law against deposits. When it is considered that the proceeds of the taxes are to constitute a guarantee-fund to redeem the notes of failed banks, and that, according to past experience, they will cover such losses twenty or thirty times over, the plan cannot be described as lacking in conservatism. The provision for reserves against the notes, which was absent from the Chamber of Commerce plan, has the merit of linking the note issues to the supply of legal tender money and preventing unwise inflation. The special commission apparently intends to bend its whole energy to the enactment of a measure of this character during the life of the Congress which meets in December.

The subject of a central bank came up incidentally at Atlantic City, but did not find much favor among the mass of delegates. Even if such a project were at any time practicable, either politically or economically, it would require many years of education to eradicate the prejudice which would be felt against it under present conditions. This is partly political—an outgrowth of the memories of the clash over the second Bank of the United States, and partly economic, upon the ground that this country is too large to permit the successful operation of such an institution, and that it might injure the local banks. Whether the project have any merit or not, the Bankers' Association decided wisely not to "swap horses" while crossing the stream, and to make a determined fight for the project of its special commission.

The fact that the bankers have been divided has always been the refuge of those politicians who were disinclined to deal with the subject. By the vote cast at Atlantic City, this excuse has been taken away from those who are afraid to legislate in favor of business interests. They may find that the pressure from home for early legislation is too strong to resist.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aked, Charles F. "Christocentric!"—Mercies New Every Morning. Fleming H. Revell Co. 15 cents each.
Atherton, Gertrude. Ancestors. Harpers. $1.75.
Auringer, O. C. Friendship's Crown of Verse. Clinton, N. Y.: George W. Browning.
Beer, George Louis. British Colonial Policy. Macmillan Co. $2 net.
Brown, Abbie Farwell. Friends and Cousins. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Browning's (Mrs.) Poems. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Bruce, Philip Alexander. Robert E. Lee. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25 net.
Buffum, Katharine G. Mother Goose in Silhouettes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Byron, Selections from. Edited by Samuel M. Tucker. Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
Call, Annie Payson. The Heart of Good Health. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents net.
Canning, Albert S. G. Shakespeare Studies in Six Plays. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
Carson, Wm. Henry. Evelyn Van Courtland. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Carter, James Coolidge. Law: Its Origin, Growth and Function. Putnams. $2.50 net.
Chisholm, Louey. The Golden Staircase: Poems and Verses for Children. Putnams. $2.50 net.
Coleridge's Ancient Mariner. Edited by J. W. Abernethy. Charles E. Merrill Co.
Cox, Kenyon. Painters and Sculptors. Duffield & Co. $2.50 net.
Curtis, Natalie. The Indians' Book. Harpers.
Cutter, Ephraim, and John Ashburton. Food: Its Relation to Health and Disease. Gazette Publishing Co.
Dante's Divine Comedy. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Dawson, Nelson. Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work. Putnams. $7.50 net.
Edwards, Owen. A Short History of Wales. University of Chicago Press. 75 cents net.

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Hannis, Margaret. The Emancipation of Miss Susanu. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 40 cents net.
Harold, Childe. A Child's Book of Abridged Wisdom. Paul Elder & Co. 75 cents net.
Harris, Miriam Coles. The Tents of Wickedness. Appletons. $1.50.
Hart, Gordon. Woman and the Race. Westwood, Mass.: Ariel Press. $1.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. XVIII. Cambridge: Harvard University.
Higginson, Thomas Wentworth. Life and Times of Stephen Higginson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 net.
Hough, Emerson. The Way of a Man. Outing Publishing Co. $1.50.
Hudson, Charles Bradford. The Crimson Conquest. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Jackson, Gabrielle E. Wee Winkles and Her Friends. Harpers. $1.25.
Jackson, Holbrook. Bernard Shaw. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co.
Jenks, Tudor. When America Was New. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Lambert, P. A. Computation and Mensuration. Macmillan Co. 80 cents net.
Lampson, G. Locker. A Consideration of the State of Ireland in the Nineteenth Century. Dutton. $5 net.
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Loftie, W. J. The Colour of London. Philadelphia. George W. Jacobs & Co. $6 net.
London, Jack. Love of Life, and other Stories. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Lonergan, W. F. Forty Years of Paris. Brentanos.
Longfellow's Hanging of the Crane. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Lounsbury, Charles. The Will of. Boston: Alfred Bartlett.
McSpadden, J. Walker. Famous Painters of America. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
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One Hundred and One Oyster Recipes. Compiled by M. E. Southworth. Paul Elder & Co. 50 cents net.
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Oxenham, John. A Man of Sark. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Paine, Albert Bigelow. From Van Dweller to Commuter. Harpers. $1.50.
Pirscher, Johanna. Growth Without End. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents net.
Poe, Selections from. Edited by J. Montgomery Gambrill. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Reed, Myrtle. Love Affairs of Literary Men. Putnams. $1.50 net.
Schwed, Hermine. Ted in Mythland. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1 net.
See, T. J. J. On the Temperature, Secular Cooling and Contraction of the Earth. American Philosophical Society.
Seymour, Frederick. Siena and Her Artists. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co
Sinclair, Upton. The Overman. Doubleday, Page & Co. 50 cents.
Sir Gawain and the Lady of Lys. Translated by Jessie L. Weston. London: David Nutt.
Tabb, John B. Quips and Quiddits. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Tarkington, Booth. His Own People. Doubleday, Page & Co. 90 cents net.
Tynan, Katharine. For Maisie. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Van Dyke, Henry. The Good Old Way.—The Battle of Life. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents net each.
Verder, Daniel Hugh. The Snow Bride, and other Poems. Charles Francis Press.
Wallington, Nellie Urner. Historic Churches of America. Duffield & Co. $2 net.
Wendell, Barett. The France of To-day. Scribners. $1.50 net.
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